AMERICAN ANNALS

OF

The Deaf

ORGAN OF THE CONVENTION OF AMERICAN INSTRUCTORS OF THE DEAF

EDITED BY

IRVING S. FUSFELD

UNDER THE DIRECTION OF

PERCIVAL HALL, OF THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA; FRANK M. DRIGGS, OF UTAH; H. M. McMANAWAY, OF VIRGINIA; THOMAS S. McALONEY, OF COLORADO; W. LAURENS WALKER, OF SOUTH CAROLINA, AND FRANK W. BOOTH, OF NEBRASKA

COMMITTEE OF THE CONFERENCE OF SUPERINTENDENTS AND PRINCIPALS OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF

VOL. LXXIV, No. 2

MARCH, 1929

Subscription, $2.00 a year

January number, $1.00 Single number otherwise, 50 cents

Published bi-monthly during the school year

Publication Office: Monumental Printing Company
1918 Harford Avenue, Baltimore, Md.

Editorial Office: Kendall Green, Washington, D. C.

Entered as second-class matter, January 11, 1926, at the post office at Baltimore, Md., under the Act of March 3, 1879. Acceptance for mailing at special rate of postage provided for in Section 1103, Act of October 3, 1917, authorized October 29, 1918.

AMERICAN ANNALS

OF

THE DEAF

ORGAN OF THE CONVENTION OF AMERICAN INSTRUCTORS OF THE DEAF

EDITED BY

IRVING S. FUSFELD

UNDER THE DIRECTION OF

Percival Hall, of the District of Columbia; Frank M. Driggs, of Utah; H. M. McManaway, of Virginia; Thomas S. McAlon y, of Colorado; W. Laurens Walker, of South Carolina; and Frank W. Booth, of Nebraska.

COMMITTEE OF THE CONFERENCE OF SUPERINTENDENTS AND PRINCIPALS OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF

VOL. LXXIV, No. 2

MARCH, 1929

AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF
VOL. LXXIV MARCH, 1929 No. 2

PROCEEDINGS OF THE FOURTEENTH CONFERENCE OF SUPERINTENDENTS AND PRINCIPALS OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF

The Fourteenth Conference of Superintendents and Principals of American Schools for the Deaf was held at Knoxville, Tennessee, October 30 to November 2, 1928.

The officers of the Conference present, elected at the Thirteenth Conference, were:

President: E. McK. Goodwin, of North Carolina.
Vice-President: Elbert A. Gruver, of Pennsylvania.
Secretary: T. C. Forrester, of New York.

The membership of the Conference was as follows:

ACTIVE MEMBERS

IGNATIUS BJORLEE, Superintendent of the Maryland State School.
J. W. BLATTNER, Superintendent of the Oklahoma School.
JOHN F. BLEDSOE, Superintendent of the Maryland School at Overlea.
FRANK W. BOOTH, Superintendent of the Nebraska School.
T. EMERY BRAY, Superintendent of the Wisconsin School.
DANIEL T. CLOUD, Superintendent of the Kansas School.
W. O. CONNOR, Superintendent of the New Mexico School.
C. B. COUGHLIN, Superintendent of the Ontario School.
HERBERT E. DAY, Superintendent of the Missouri School.
PARLEY DEBERRY, Superintendent of the West Virginia School.
FRANK M. DRIGGS, Superintendent of the Utah School.
LEONARD M. ELSTAD, Principal of the Wright Oral School.
T. C. FORRESTER, Superintendent of the Rochester School.
E. MCK. GOODWIN, Superintendent of the North Carolina School.
ELBERT A. GRUVER, Superintendent of the Pennsylvania Institution.
PERCIVAL HALL, President of Gallaudet College.
J. C. HARRIS, Superintendent of the Georgia School.
PEARL HERDMAN, Principal of the Gallaudet School, St. Louis.
J. W. JONES, Superintendent of the Ohio State School.
MADISON J. LEE, Superintendent of the Kentucky School.
THOMAS S. MCALONEY, Superintendent of the Colorado School.
O. L. MCINTIRE, Superintendent of the Iowa School.
H. M. MCMANAWAY, Superintendent of the Virginia School.
A. C. MANNING, Superintendent of the Western Pennsylvania Institution.
MISS VIRGINIA A. OSBORN, Principal of the Cincinnati Day-School.
O. M. PITTENGER, Superintendent of the Indiana School.
MRS. H. T. POORE, Superintendent of the Tennessee School.

ALVIN E. POPE, Superintendent of the New Jersey School.
MRS. R. L. RIGGS, Superintendent of the Arkansas School.
VICTOR O. SKYBERG, Superintendent of the Minnesota School.
ELWOOD A. STEVENSON, Principal of the California School.
HARRIS TAYLOR, Superintendent of the Institution for Improved Instruction, New York.
E. S. TILLINGHAST, Superintendent of the South Dakota School.
W. LAURENS WALKER, Superintendent of the South Carolina School.
FRANK D. WHIPP, Superintendent of the Illinois School.

HONORARY MEMBERS

E. R. ABERNATHY, Principal in the Ohio School.
JOSEPH E. AVENT, Professor of Educational Psychology, University of Tennessee.
LULA M. BRUCE, Supervising Principal in the Kentucky School.
SAM B. CRAIG, Principal of the Kendall School.
MRS. PARLEY DEBERRY, Romney, West Virginia.
KNIGHT DUNLAP, National Research Council, Washington, D. C.
IRVING S. FUSFELD, Editor of the AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF.
W. H. GEMMILL, Secretary, State Board of Education, Iowa.
MRS. E. MCK. GOODWIN, Morganton, N. C.
B. W. HILL, West Virginia.
MRS. B. W. HILL, West Virginia.
MRS. J. W. JONES, Columbus, Ohio.
J. SCHUYLER LONG, Principal in the Iowa School.
EDWIN A. MARKLEY, New Jersey School, Trenton, N. J.
THOMAS S. MARR, Nashville, Tenn.
JOSEPHINE OSBORN, Ohio.
MRS. O. M. PITTENGER, Principal in the Indiana School.
H. T. POORE, Knoxville, Tenn.
MRS. ALVIN E. POPE, Trenton, N. J.
MAGGIE NEEL PROCTOR, Tennessee School, Knoxville, Tenn.
R. L. RIGGS, Little Rock, Ark.
MRS. V. O. SKYBERG, Faribault, Minn.
HOWARD B. SMITH, Washington, D. C.
JOHN T. TAYLOR, Principal in the Illinois School.
MRS. J. T. TAYLOR, Jacksonville, Ill.
J. A. THACKSTON, Dean of Education, University of Tennessee.
JOSEPHINE B. TIMBERLAKE, Superintendent of the Volta Bureau.
H. R. WARD, Principal in the Tennessee School.
MRS. HARRIETTE R. WHIPP, Jacksonville, Ill.

The program of the Conference commenced with a banquet session. The members of the Conference and invited guests assembled in the main dining room of the Hotel Farragut at 8 o'clock Tuesday evening, October 30th, for a banquet tendered by the citizens of Knoxville. Dr. Reece Patterson, of Knoxville, acted as chairman. Greetings of welcome were offered in addresses by Mr.

Henry D. Blanc, vice-mayor of the city of Knoxville, and Capt. R. H. Lyle, commissioner of state institutions, and cordially responded to on behalf of the Conference by its president, Supt. E. McK. Goodwin.

The main address of the evening was given by Dr. J. A. Thackston, Dean of Education of the University of Tennessee, on

SOME PRESENT-DAY PRACTICES IN CURRICULUM CONSTRUCTION

In the last four or five years thousands of articles and hundreds of books have been written on the construction of the curriculum. I suspect more literature has appeared on this topic than on any other topic in the educational field in America since 1923. It is interesting to ask why this is a fact, and to ask the meaning of the curriculum. I may illustrate this from the experience of a young man whom I know in South Carolina. He is deaf and dumb and I was told that he had never used, and probably did not know, any bad language since he had not been taught any. What he knew came out of the curriculum of his life experiences. This illustrates the place of the curriculum in the education of people. It is the agency or means through which we educate people. It is the thing that enables us to take children and transform them from where they are over to where they ought to be. At least, it ought to be that. That is its function.

In America there have been two great movements in curriculum construction. One began between 1910 and 1915; the other began when America was founded. I want to tell you briefly what these two movements are.

Originally in America it appears, if you will read the history of schools and the things they taught, that we taught subjects not children, that children might learn subjects and be qualified in subjects. Originally, when the country was first founded, we find that the three R's and religion dominated the curriculum. What did they

propose to do? They were in there that the child might learn them, use them if he could when older, and obey them. A little later, in Jackson's day, there appeared geography and civics and history. These subjects were put in that children, when grown, might be prepared to take part in political life. They were put in the curriculum by individuals who imagined they would fit boys especially for public life, but put in without any special thought of the child and the life he was then living. The subject and adult life, not the child, were the main considerations.

A little later science, when the great industrial revolution came, was put in the curriculum. But it was put in as a school subject rather than a functioning agency in the child's life. By 1890 you will find this idea dominating the whole curriculum of the public schools, elementary and secondary. The history, science, mathematics, and language that were taught were taught primarily for their own value and for future value to the child when grown up. The gap between what was taught and what was needed by the child in a practical, everyday way was very great.

When you come to the cultural side of the life of the child, you will find that the curriculum was as far from the child's needs and appreciation as adulthood is from childhood. It was also dominated by English culture and ideals rather than American. When I think of that, I don't wonder that Mayor Thompson thought John Bull was going to get him and Chicago, too, because you will find up till 1900 that the literature and art and music and language of the curriculum of this country's schools were dominated by English literature and formality in language. As I understand your work, you have had no experience with such curricula. You are teaching, I think, the thing that will help the child now and tomorrow in a particular way.

Hurriedly now, I must say something about the new point of view of curriculum construction. What I have

been saying has been the old point of view. It was dominated by the learning of the subject, that the pupil might be qualified in the subject as a subject. Such curricula were made by individuals and dominated from 1890 to 1910 by colleges, by college standards, and subject matter.

When we come to 1910, we find a different attitude and an about-face on this whole business. Thereafter, men interested in children and in the advancement of childhood for this civilization took curriculum construction in their hands. Instead of allowing subject matter to dominate the curricula and the making of curricula with scissors and paste from other curricula, they went out into the world to find out what children ought to have, that they might be better children and better citizens now and to-morrow. The people who are studying curricula to-day are of the opinion that the curriculum in the public elementary and high school should be much influenced by the needs of children to-day and not dominated by adult needs. They used to say: "Let's educate children for their needs when they are grown". That is impossible for many reasons. If it were possible it would be very unwise. If children in their teen age were all right and everything going perfectly, then you might educate them for the future, if possible. But they are not all right. The youth of the land needs guidance and education for to-day. Consider the churches. They are being deserted by our boys and girls. Can the churches afford to train children for adult life to the neglect of present life? They need religion to-day. Consider the youthful lawbreakers. Look at the different social disorders we have among young people. They need social education now. Now is the time they need to be kept going in the right way, not especially when they are gray and old and experienced. To-day the curriculum is being child centered. To educate the child properly for to-day will necessarily give him common elements that will carry over to to-morrow.

How are they going about making these new curricula? First of all, they are trying to put into the curricula those things that will function in the child's life. They are trying to find out what particular function each part of the curriculum plays in the child's life. Take an illustration from spelling. You are familiar with it, I suspect. Spelling curriculum makers have gone out in the child's experience and have found out what words children need to spell in their every-day activities and they have put these words in the child's curriculum. Mental training, as such, is not considered seriously when such a list is made, for the spelling of one group of words trains the mind as well as other groups do. So the words usable by the child are the ones taught. You can't train the mind in general; you train the mind in particular.

They have gone out into the field of spelling and have found the words that children need to spell to-day. These words have been as carefully selected and studied as chemical elements have been differentiated and studied.

They are doing this thing in every subject. They are trying to make subject matter help the schools realize their great objectives. Do you know what the objectives of education are? Here they are: health, home, economic life, civic life, religious life, moral life, and recreational life. Those are the purposes for which schools stand, yet when the child goes to school you don't teach these things. What do you teach? You teach algebra; you teach American History; you teach chemistry.

Now let me ask you this question, and leave the thing for you to solve: "If these subjects are properly taught, isn't it fair to expect that the child will get 100 per cent value from them to help him realize these great objectives in life?" I think that is the purpose for which the school stands. And wouldn't you agree with that? All right, now tell me what percentage of United States history as usually taught in our public schools helps

make home life better? And we do need better home life in America to-day. What percentage of United States history goes to the political life and recreational life and religious life? If these subjects cannot give us a fair and square answer to these things, we as curriculum constructors are going to find out why, and we are going to see that America's children have those things, so far as science and the research and investigation of the best men of America can find out that they ought to have. That is, we are going to see that they get the things that will function, and to-morrow we hope that there will not be that great gap between the curriculum and the needs of child life.

FIRST SESSION: WEDNESDAY MORNING, OCTOBER 31, 1928.

The first formal session of the Conference, in the assembly room of the Hotel Farragut was called to order at 9:15 a. m., Wednesday, October 31st. After invocation by Dr. Samuel Glasgow, of Knoxville, Mr. E. McK. Goodwin, as presiding officer of the Conference, gave the

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS

In my brief remarks I shall confine myself largely to personal observations during the past forty-three years in the profession. However, we forget too often what the pioneer educators of the deaf did, and had to do, in the early days of the American schools for the deaf. Do we realize that between the time the first school at Hartford was established, in 1817, to the establishment of the Tennessee School, the eighth to be opened, was a quarter of a century, and that it took more than one hundred years, a full century, to establish a public school for the education of the deaf, in not quite every state in the Union, and that even to-day there are still four states—Delaware, Nevada, New Hampshire and Wyoming—without a public school for the deaf?

I wonder if some of us fail to appreciate the work of Dr. Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet, who had a vision of service for the uplift and education of the deaf that

neither state nor society had experienced, and who as the true missionary began his life work with little hope of reward other than to be permitted to serve his fellowman in the amelioration of the condition of his deafened brother.

To-day the young man and the young woman beginning to teach stop to count the income rather than the "cost". The question is not often asked, How much service can I render? but How much compensation shall I realize? and to-day our profession is conducted on a commercial basis.

Previous to 1870 practically all the education of the deaf was conducted manually, and in 1870 about 70 per cent of the teachers of the deaf were themselves deaf.

In 1886, at its Eleventh Meeting, the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf gave the first official recognition that the Oral Method had ever had on this continent when it declared that every deaf child should have a fair trial under oral teaching, to ascertain its ability to articulate and to advance in the acquisition of knowledge in the method that had not yet had recognition or favor in the profession. There were two institutions at that time using only the oral method; both of these institutions had the word "dumb" or "mute" in their official titles. There were a number of schools at that time having articulation classes, with a teacher of practically no training for oral work. Indeed, the method would doubtless have gained favor many years before it did if trained teachers could have been obtained. The lack of trained teachers has been the drawback in the profession at large, for it has been only a score of years since superintendents and principals did not even ask if a teacher seeking a position had had special preparation beyond the requirements for public school teachers, and too often would accept teachers who had failed to obtain certificates or license to teach in the public schools, and on account of the dearth of trained teachers, even to-day schools are almost forced to accept teachers who have had

little or no training. But we venture to predict that within a half score of years we shall have such complete standardization of teacher training requirements and course of study and instruction that young college women will seek normal training for the work, and only those of college education will be accepted for such training.

In 1886 the salary scale for women teachers ranged from $300 and living to $600 and living, and there were more at $300 than at $600, while to-day women teachers of training and experience command from $1,000 to $2,500.

Per capita costs then, in the majority of schools, was less than $200, while to-day per capita cost in residential schools ranges from $450 to $900, a percentum of increase quite as large as the increase in salaries.

At that time there were about 5,000 deaf children in residential schools, while to-day there are 17,000, with a large per cent of increase in the number of class teachers, for at that time organization and grading were not stressed as one of the essentials in school management.

Records do not show that at that time any staff of teachers had a supervising teacher to correlate the work and grade the classes, while to-day practically every school has its supervising head of the educational department.

I emphasize these marked advancements in methods and policy of the education of the deaf to refute the charge by some that the education of the deaf has not kept pace with the educational advancement and progress in the schools for normal children. I think we can prove that it has kept pace with the progress of education in schools for the hearing in every phase of the school life.

Records show that in 1886 the material outlay was not more than 25 per cent of what it is to-day, to say nothing of the facility for using the resources at hand.

Not only have the physical plants been made so much better, but the utilization of what these physical phases means has been assimilated and put into the life of the deaf themselves.

Attention to health and physical development has not been neglected, and vital statistics would prove the assertion that schools for the deaf have not only kept pace, but have led the schools for normal children, for through the agencies of schools for the deaf special schools for defective youths have been established, schools which very materially relieve schools for the deaf. A score of years ago most schools for the deaf were embarrassed with the burden of feeble-minded and uneducable children, which condition was a great injustice to the deaf because of the conclusion of even intelligent laymen that many of the deaf were not worth the effort spent in the attempt at their education. I believe to-day that there are fewer feeble-minded children kept in schools for the deaf than ever before, and every effort should be made to put such children in special schools.

The question of the establishment of one or more junior colleges in the country has been discussed. There is evidently need of additional facilities at present between the state schools and the college, but should it not be provided in various state or residential schools, rather than in junior colleges, for we are constantly reminded that the best of our graduates are not well prepared to enter Gallaudet College? Should not the state schools extend their courses for a period of two or three years to meet the need that is claimed for junior colleges?

I have long thought that there should be a technical school that could afford facilities for those students who have special talent, when they have completed the regular course or years at the state schools. Special technical courses are needed more than additional courses in literary work.

This is only following the progress of schools for the normal young men and young women who have special talent.

A very large proportion of the deaf who go to college hope to make teaching their life work, while the opportunities for their need in the literary departments grow

less every year. But there is need of the specially trained young deaf men and women in the technical training, if special schools could be provided for these capable young people of marked talent.

Education in its general acceptation is the first need to the deaf, but to prepare them to earn a livelihood is also very essential, for too often the deaf man has a hard time, though he may have fair education and be industrious. He needs what our machines need, a "hot point" or "starter", and like the machine, will go when once started.

I believe practically every school for the deaf has industrial instruction, but with too little facilities for such instruction, and when the young deaf man seeks employment he is found not "half-baked", and he meets discouragement, which is almost his destruction. But to meet these needs we must educate our citizenship to a realization of our needs and the worthwhileness of the deaf, if they are once put on their feet.

The profession is indebted to the National Research Council for its splendid work in the last few years, for much valuable information has been brought out that could not have been procured by individual effort, and the profession should lend its unstinted support to the National Research Council and invoke its aid to further the scope of its work.

In conclusion, I would say that the greatest need in our profession to-day is more complete standardization of teacher training, and certification of teachers, with a little more professional ethics thrown in on the part of superintendents and principals.

MR. GOODWIN: The subject now before us deals with "Deafness as a Social Problem." It will be opened with a paper by Mr. Victor O. Skyberg, of the Minnesota School, on

DEAFNESS AS A SOCIAL PROBLEM— THE PHYSICAL SIDE

The physical side of deafness is fundamental. It is the impairment of the physical structure of the human ear and the disturbances of its normal functions which lie at the base of our whole program of educational activities on behalf of the deaf. Consideration of the physical side of deafness is primarily one for the medical profession, and it behooves the layman to attempt little more other than to interpret medical findings in the light of the educational experiences such as have been gained by those here assembled.

I believe that all members of the Conference have received a copy of the Report of the Committee on the Physical Causes of Deafness prepared by the National Research Council. Inasmuch as this is the most recent and without question the most accurate report bearing on the question under consideration, I believe that a brief review and comment on this report may be of interest to us all. The report is based upon the examination of 3,120 children in nine state institutions for the deaf, and in a number of day-schools in Chicago.

The first classification of interest is the division of subjects into two groups, those with congenital deafness and those with acquired deafness. In all, 1,928 cases are reported as being congenital cases and 1,192 as having acquired deafness.

In considering those where congenital deafness is reported, we are confronted with the question as to the accuracy of the early reports on the children concerned. The examiners have qualified the congenital cases by recording 1,419 or 73.5 per cent as being definitely congenital, and 508 or 26.5 per cent as being probably congenital. We have long since been acquainted with the difficulties involved in this question, and I shall make no further comment on this matter except as it concerns the question of heredity.

The report recognizes heredity as a factor in congenital deafness and has made detailed observations in 723 individual cases showing the nature of the consanguinity, the history of deafness in the family of parents, and other cases of deafness in the immediate family. Of these 723 cases the nature of the consanguinity is as follows:

In 34 cases the parents were first cousins.

In 26 cases the parents were second cousins.

In 11 cases the parents were third cousins.

In one instance an uncle had married his niece.

In one instance the child's father was also the mother's father.

Of the definitely congenital cases 39.3 per cent give a history of other cases of deafness in the family, and of the probably congenital cases 21.5 per cent give a history of deafness in the family. In the cases of the 349 children concerned, the following facts have been noted: "Ninety-five uncles of the children had deafness and 91 aunts, 90 cousins, 21 grandparents and 52 were listed as other relatives. Of course, to elicit the fact that some relative was hard of hearing does not necessarily imply that this deafness had anything to do with heredity or consanguinity. For example, grandparents who are recorded as being hard of hearing might easily have suffered from senile deafness, a condition which certainly has nothing to do with the hereditary transmission of deafness to children. The acquiring of deafness of any type probably means a type of deafness that has nothing to do with transmissions to children.

"The statistics regarding deafness in the immediate family, that is, in brothers and sisters, were of great interest: 217 deaf children had one brother or sister who was known to be deaf; 73 deaf children had two deaf brothers or sisters; 27 deaf children had three deaf brothers or sisters; 5 deaf children had four brothers or sisters who were hard of hearing, and 3 deaf children had five brothers or sisters who were hard of hearing. In all these cases the defect in the hearing of the brothers and

sisters was severe enough to be commented on when the child was placed in the institution for the deaf. Twins were found to be deaf in ten instances."

I am certain that most educators of the deaf have many times wondered what evidence can be produced to determine the nature of the physical impairment involved in a case of congenital deafness. The report under consideration has reached this conclusion. "It can be generally accepted that the pathologic condition responsible for congenital deafness is usually in the nature of a developmental anomaly involving the internal ear." And, "it would appear that the cochlear mechanism is the one most frequently involved in these developmental anomalies."

It is interesting to note that the report states that "syphilis is an unimportant item in this country, at least in the causation of deafmutism."

The findings relative to the etiology of acquired deafness are practically identical with those supplied by various state institutions up to date. In fact, the latter statistics form the basis for the percentage prepared by the National Research Council.

Meningitis leads the list with a total number of 209 or a percentage of 17.5.

Scarlet Fever is second with 100 cases and a percentage of 8.3.

Measles is third with a total of 97 and a percentage of 8.2.

Influenza is fourth with a total of 91 and a percentage of 7.5.

Suppurative Otitis Media is fifth with 64 cases and a percentage of 5.5.

Pneumonia is sixth with 54 cases and a percentage of 4.5.

Whooping Cough is seventh with 42 cases and a percentage of 3.5.

And so on down the line. Eight other causes list from 22 to 38, and eleven other causes have a total each of from 1 to 19.

The analysis of the cases of acquired deafness fairly bristles with references to otitis media. In this term I have recognized an old acquaintance of Veterans Bureau days, for it was only after we had begun a systematic search for cases where otitis media was reported that we began to make contact with those ex-service men who became subjects for special training and supervision in the work of rehabilitation. I do not have time to repeat the very interesting statistics in detail. We notice that in 20 per cent of the cases of acquired deafness that this deafness at the onset was associated with otitis media. In 80 per cent of the cases such was not the case.

I might inject here a little observation on the occurrence of otitis media with the ex-service men. I happen to have available the medical history of some 630 deaf ex-service men and women. Almost 60 per cent of those cases had otitis media. In 30 per cent of the cases otitis media was not indicated, and in 10 per cent the cause was definitely otitis interni.

I should judge that the medical history prepared under the Veterans Bureau was accurate; that the medical histories prepared by parents of deaf children in our state schools are inaccurate, and I am pretty well satisfied that the percentage of 60 per cent of otitis media is much more in point of fact than the report prepared by the Council, giving only 20 per cent as having had otitis media in connection with the occurrence of deafness.

Now, a comment is made to this effect: "When we find deafness severe enough to necessitate a child's being placed in an institution for the deaf, this is, in itself, sufficient evidence to warrant the conclusion that the child's deafness is due to some disturbance of the child's nervous mechanism, internal ear disease."

And this: "Even in the cases in which otitis media was present, it was not logical to assume that the otitis media itself led to the involvement of the labyrinth which was responsible for the deafness, because a patient suffering from an infectious fever which in itself is capable of pro-

ducing a neuritis of the eighth nerve may also have as a coincidence an otitis media, and the two processes be entirely independent."

A test as to vestibular reactions reveals "that in most of these cases the development of the deafness probably was not the result of an extension of the suppurative disease of the middle ear to the labyrinth." In other words, an inflammation of the middle ear has been found to be responsible for only 20 per cent of the cases of acquired deafness. In 80 per cent the causes lie in the internal ear or have developed from a toxic neuritis which produces nerve deafness.

An interesting comment is made on the relation of deafness to disease of adenoids and tonsils in children. The report most emphatically states that "the type of diseases of the ear responsible for the deafness in children in institutions for the deaf has no direct relation to the ear trouble produced so commonly by disease of the tonsils and adenoids. In these children the defect lies necessarily in the internal ear, as it is the only nerve deafness which can be severe enough to necessitate a child's being sent to a school for the deaf. This nerve deafness in some instances develops secondarily to suppurative disease of the middle ear, a condition which can easily be brought on as the result of tonsil and adenoid trouble." And furthermore, "that tonsil and adenoid trouble, although a factor in producing mild cases of deafness in children, can hardly be held responsible even remotely—that is, through the production of a suppurative otitis media with secondary extension to the labyrinth—for the production of deafness in any of these children, since the suppuration of the labyrinth would have to be a bilateral affair, which is, of course, extremely improbable." That is, it was declared improbable that a child would have an inflammation of the middle ear in both ears at the same time and have exactly the same result in the labyrinth.

Now, here is a bit of interesting statistics bearing on tonsils and adenoids:

"In 482 children in whom tonsils and adenoids had been removed, there were palpable evidences of a lesion of the middle ear, and in 742, or almost twice that number, palpable evidence of a lesion of the middle ear was entirely absent."

In 1,562 children examined the tonsils had not been removed.

An interesting comment is made on mumps as a cause for serious deafness because of the rather dramatic manner in which the ear trouble develops. This disease produces none of the disturbances which attend other diseases mentioned as causes of deafness. The destruction of hearing comes, so to speak, "out of a clear sky." It does not produce otitis media and the conclusion has been drawn "that in mumps one is confronted with the phenomenon of toxic neuritis involving the eighth nerve, sometimes producing total, and at other times only partial, destruction of the hearing or vestibular mechanism." In other words, mumps apparently reaches the auditory nerve immediately. We don't have any difficulty in between.

The children examined in this survey were given all the usual mechanical tests in addition to a careful examination for vestiges of hearing with the audiometer. Five hundred and five, or 16.1 per cent of the cases, show total deafness for all tests; 2,452, or 78.6 per cent, show remnants of hearing with the audiometer, and of this number the audiometer detected remnants of hearing in 954, or 38.9 per cent, where the other tests were negative.

Listen carefully to this: "Of the 1,466 children in whom hearing was demonstrated by the audiometer as well as by other tests, 728 showed a marked speech defect and 738 were without marked speech defects, about one-half." Of the 505 showing total deafness in all functional tests, 392 had marked speech defects and, to our surprise, 113 of them had no marked speech defect. To say that the speech

was normal would be putting it too strongly, of course, but there was an absence of that mouthing of words which is such a conspicuous accompaniment of speech in many deafened persons.

"Of the 954 children in whom remnants of hearing were detected by the audiometer but in whom other hearing tests were negative, 717 showed marked speech defects and 237 were without marked speech defects."

Now, just a comment on a really important item, those cases where vestiges of hearing appear. After all, the principal function of the hearing organ is the reception of vocal impulses. The report reads: "Since the hearing for the voice is such an important matter, we undertook to analyze our statistics in relation to total deafness to the voice. In all there were 1,759 children who were totally deaf to the voice; 537 of them were totally deaf to the audiometer. For 23 of this group records were not made and 1,199 showed remnants of hearing with the audiometer. Of the 537 children found totally deaf in the audiometer test, 505, or 94 per cent, were also found totally deaf with the tuning forks, for both bone and air conduction, while 32 of those with total deafness in the audiometer tests gave some remnants of hearing in the tuning-fork tests." This means that 1,361, or better than 43.5 per cent of these children, in the opinion of medical experts, had voice perception. However, this can scarcely be interpreted to mean functional voice reception. I question whether any of these pupils could understand speech in a normal voice at a greater distance than three or four feet. I use this as an arbitrary test for functional hearing. They are, I am certain, proper subjects for instruction by such auricular methods as have been developed in our schools.

Some thought should be given to the question of the prevention of deafness and the question as to whether or not deafness is on the increase. I believe that we can be safe in saying that the ratio of deafness to population is

on the decrease. It would seem more than probable that the marked strides made in the past decade in the prevention and control of those diseases primarily responsible for deafness will be a factor in reducing this ratio. We should not overlook, however, the fact that this same factor has searched out and brought to our attention numerous cases of incipient deafness which the medical profession of earlier days failed to discover. While the ratio of cases may be actually decreasing, this second condition is bringing a greater number of children to the attention of our profession for specialized types of instruction. The consistent increase of our population is, of course, bringing on a corresponding increase of actual cases of deafness, though, as I mentioned above, the ratio is probably an inverse one.

Mr. DRIGGS addressed the Conference on

DEAFNESS AS A SOCIAL PROBLEM—THE INDUSTRIAL SIDE

I think we will all quite agree that approximately 90 per cent of the men and women of the world, and especially men, have to make their living by their hands or the work of their hands. If that is true it must follow, or should at least, that in the education of deaf children a great deal of emphasis should be laid upon the industrial side. I think the early educators of the deaf recognized the importance of this side of our work by starting in our schools industrial departments or trade departments, manual-training departments or shop work. And in this I wish also to include the work of our girls.

I think also that the home duties of life in an institution have always been considered by the heads of institutions as very, very important. There are no other duties as important, I think, as the home duties of life. Those of us who were brought up on the farm or in the country realize this perhaps more than those who were brought up in the city, and I think that that early training of

making beds and keeping the institution clean and attending to the various little home duties of institutional life is quite as important in the character building of industry, if you please, as any other part of our institutional work.

The question in my mind in this talk has been: Have we been a little bit too self-satisfied in our industrial departments, if we may call them industrial departments? Have we not, perhaps, because of the long years that this work has been conducted in schools for the deaf, been lagging just a little bit in the onward march of industrial education in schools for the deaf? I put that as a question, but I believe it is true that we have in many schools. Have we been watching the onward and upward trend of industrial education or technical training in the public school system? Some, I think, have, very cautiously and very wisely, been watching this forward movement in technical high schools and technical colleges, but some of us, I am sure, have not been keeping pace with that. Most of us have rather patted ourselves on the back in the results that our pupils and ex-graduates have met with when they have left the school. When we have visitors at our own institution, we take a great deal of pride in telling them that almost without exception our deaf boys meet with splendid success and are self-supporting, honorable, industrious citizens of the commonwealth. We take a great deal of pride in saying that one of our boys is a surveyor, that two of them are chemists and bacteriologists, that a number of them are successful instructors in other schools for the deaf, that some of them are draftsmen, that some of them are splendid carpenters and printers and linotype operators, and that a great many are very successful farmers.

We all know that the graduates of the schools for the deaf generally are capable and industrious and honest men and women. I think we also know this: That we are not equipped so as to turn out from our schools for the

deaf skilled mechanics or workmen with *industrial* intelligence. I think there has been and still is a woeful lack in most industrial departments of schools for the deaf of the use of the English of the shop or the trade. There is quite a lack, too, of specialization.

This, too, is true, I think: That those schools for the deaf in America that have added a few years to their course of study, making a full four years' high school course, find that since the high school department or high school course has been added, the deaf young men and women who graduate from high school and go either to Gallaudet College or some other college or university to specialize, meet with much greater success than our graduates did formerly. This is true in Utah. We find that the inspiration that our boys and girls get by remaining in school a few more years leads them on to greater endeavor and greater specialization.

The question is, What are the remedies for these suggested faults in our industrial education? I would suggest first a field officer, where the school is large enough, who shall follow up these boys and girls and get them placed in industry and follow them in industry.

I would suggest, second, a survey of all of our graduates and ex-pupils who have spent some time in our institutions, to find out what they are doing and how well they succeed in the different vocations that they enter.

I would suggest, third, that we set up higher standards of industrial education in our schools for the deaf, and to do that we must employ better trained industrial teachers and we must have better equipment. We cannot expect success in the industrial side of the education of deaf people unless we skill our deaf people in that work. We cannot expect success unless our pupils possess industrial intelligence, and we cannot expect industrial intelligence unless they have technical training, unless they know the technical side and the technical language of the

industry. We cannot gather figs from thistles, and I have never found any blood in a turnip.

I would also, if I could afford it—and many of us can—have a principal of the industrial department and place that department upon the same general basis as our educational work. One of the very best results obtained in the school in which I have had the pleasure to work for a number of years has been the segregation of the young children from the older ones.

Then I would employ, as far as possible, the very best technically trained teachers for the industrial department that I could find. For one thing, I would not have a single boy in the class in carpentry who did not have a course in mechanical drawing. We have been doing that for a number of years in Utah and it works beautifully.

I would have the same qualifications for the teachers of the industrial department that I have for the other teachers; that is, they should be normally trained and specially trained and technically trained for that department. And I would pay them the same salary.

I think our industrial departments, every one of them, should have very definite and very positive courses of study and examination. The equipment, of course, then must be up to date. No printing office in America to-day is a real printing office without a linotype, in other words.

I should absolutely insist that in every one of these industrial classes the communication and the instruction should be given in the English language. If we expect our boys and girls to get the intelligence, to get the English of the trade, to know what they are talking about and to know what they are doing, we must use the English language, and it should be used on the spot when they need it.

The question of a technical college, which the president has brought up, is an important one. My impression is that the national college for the deaf should extend its scope in that particular. I believe if our boys and girls

get the inspiration of higher education in industry, they can go to other colleges if they can't go to Gallaudet, and get it in that way.

And last, but not least, I would set the aim so high that we would have greater respect for our industrial departments. Some of our boys and girls will get there, and others will get part way, and more of the rest of them will get the inspiration. With a higher mark to shoot at we may better prepare our deaf children to meet the social problem in an industrial way.

Mr. BLATTNER: Our subject here has to do with the social side, as well as with the preparation. We have had a splendid paper and a splendid talk here in regard to the physical condition and the industrial preparation of our pupils, but the social side, I believe, has not been touched upon in either one of these papers.

My interpretation of this question is: How are we going to take care of the deaf after we get them educated? How are we going to overcome the prejudice that the deaf have to meet out in the world, in the industrial world, in order to get employment and make a living for themselves? How are we to overcome the opposition of the trade unions? I don't know. I haven't made a careful study of the laws and regulations of the trade unions for admitting our deaf graduates into their organizations, but it has always seemed to me that there is a hitch among our labor unions—and I don't decry labor unions at all—a feeling against admitting the deaf. We should, as educators of the deaf, study that problem and undertake to solve it. If we are going to prepare our pupils to enter into the industrial life of our people, we must know something about the obstacles that they will meet in order to find employment and to continue in labor and to be recognized as a part of the labor element of our people.

I can give you one illustration to show how hard it is for a deaf person, or a person who doesn't belong to an

organization, to get work. It is an incident that occurred down in Texas years ago, when I was principal and assistant superintendent. We were building a school building and we were running a tunnel underneath the main building, down through the basement and over to this school building. We had a deaf man in our school, a Mexican, who was a good bricklayer and a good mason all-round, and I was instructed by the superintendent before he left to place that man in that tunnel to lay brick for that connection to the school building. Well, of course, the men on the job outside on the building were union men, and as soon as they caught sight of that Mexican deaf man there they sent their foreman around to the president of the board and told him that we would have to take that man off that job or they would have to quit; not that they had no sympathy for that deaf man, but that their regulations, their laws, required them to lay down their tools and quit.

The president of the board came out to see me, and we discussed the matter and we concluded that we would put that man away over at the west end of that tunnel to work, where those union men on the building wouldn't see him. And we kept him there at work and there wasn't anything further said about it. Now, that is a very fine technical point for somebody to explain, as to why that Mexican without a union card in his pocket could work at the west end of that tunnel over at the other end of the main building when he couldn't work where those people could see him.

Here is another thing we must take into consideration in our study of the social relations of our graduates, and that is the employees' compensation laws that are being put upon the statute books of our states through the influence of our labor organizations. Good laws. They are all right. They protect the laboring man, but they keep the deaf man out of employment. A constructor, a builder, a superintendent of a shop will hesitate to employ a deaf

man when those laws are on the statute books. What are we going to do about it?

There was a deaf man in our city who was a skilled mechanic, just as expert a mechanic as you could find anywhere, with all kinds of machinery. He had been superintendent of shops and he was running a garage. He came to me one time and he said: "Won't you use your influence toward having those laws repealed"—employers' liability, or whatever they call it. I said: "No, I can't do that. I couldn't do that any more than fly." Why? Because the legislators of the state recognized the wishes and the interests of the employees, of the labor unions, and put those laws on the statute books, and I couldn't have them repealed.

The only thing, it seems to me, that we can do under circumstances of that kind, is to use our influence toward educating the employing public to the fact that there is no more risk in employing deaf people ordinarily in the industries of our state than in employing the hearing, and the same points that we would use in favor of the deaf driving their own automobiles we can use in favor of the deaf being no more of a risk than the hearing in the shops and in the industries of our states, the principal one being that they use their eyes. Where we use our ears, the deaf use their eyes, and they see more than we see, and their eyes are substitutes for the hearing.

Now, there is a line upon which we can work as heads of institutions and educators of the deaf, to educate the public up to the fact that there is no more risk in employing an intelligent, wide-awake deaf man than there is in employing hearing people.

Mr. DRIGGS: I think, Mr. Blattner, if you had a wide-awake field agent, he could help solve your union problems and also your compensation problems.

Mr. BLATTNER: I think so. I think that is a very good suggestion.

Mr. GEMMILL: My observation, which is somewhat limited, has convinced me that the schools are affording very excellent opportunities for vocational training for young men, and in a certain way for young ladies, but it does seem to me that the amount of training offered the girls is somewhat limited. It is all right for those who are going back home or going into their own home.

I am an ardent believer in vocational training for a large part of the people. It doesn't hurt anybody. So I am very much in favor of home economics work, cooking, sewing, millinery, dressmaking and so on, that most of these schools are offering to the young women, but my observation in Iowa is this: That the training is good for those that go back home or go into homes of their own, but what are the schools giving to the girls who are going to make a living? Some years ago the girl could find employment with some woman who was a dressmaker. Only a few years ago there was great demand for dressmakers. I learn from talks with merchants in Des Moines that nowadays a very large per cent, possibly 90 or above, of women's wear comes from the factory ready made, and that there isn't very much demand for the old-time dressmaker.

A few, perhaps, can get employment in millinery establishments. We have one in the city of Des Moines, one such establishment, but even there the number who are employed is very limited. It does seem to me that something must be done for the young women to give them training in some course or courses whereby they can go out and make their own living, where they must become wage-earners, and I have wondered what some of the schools represented in this conference are really doing. I wonder if some superintendent or principal or member would like to discuss this phase of the question under consideration.

DR. GRUVER: In the last year or two in Philadelphia we have had a class of ten or twelve girls in typing, and

three of them went out in the last year and procured employment immediately in offices. We have another class this year. We know we have places for two or three before they graduate. We have found that typing has been a very good outlet as an occupation for girls.

Mr. POPE: What about the power machines?

Dr. GRUVER: We have the power machines and are using them, but I can't say definitely about them.

Mr. POPE: There is a big field there.

Mr. GEMMILL: Just one other question. A suggestion was made to me the other day by someone not a schoolman—and let me say, although I am a schoolman, some of our best suggestions, I believe, come from folks who make no pretensions to being educators. I suppose in every city we will find a good many women who either own beauty parlors themselves or are working in them, and the suggestion was offered to me that deaf women ought to do very well in work of that kind. We do know that deaf barbers are quite successful.

Mr. DRIGGS: We have one young lady following that work. And we have some following typewriting and some following bookkeeping.

Mrs. PITTENGER: The girls from our school who have learned to do work in a beauty parlor have not found it a very successful thing. I think perhaps it is because women are too much like men, they like to hear the worker talk, and it has not been a very big success.

Dr. HALL: We are trying to develop library cataloging as one of the avenues for our young women to follow.

The matter of dressmaking was mentioned a little while ago. Of course, that has gone into the hands of large factories, and so forth, but there is a demand for design and invention of new styles and new combinations of colors and that sort of thing, and I feel quite confident that some of our brighter girls can get into work of that kind, not traveling around helping the old-fashioned dressmaker, but going into dressmaking establishments that are mak-

ing dresses, the bigger factories, because there they need people that have some original ideas and good ideas in color and design and form, and that kind of work.

I also want to suggest the possibility of going a little further than simple bookkeeping, and say that it seems to me quite possible that a number of girls might—I know a number of deaf girls who have done this kind of work—go into the use of calculating machines in large establishments, bookkeeping machines, adding machines, doing what might be called the simpler forms of auditing, accounting in the large establishments, where they keep records of every worker and pay him on what he sells or what he does. I think deaf girls could go into that very well.

Mr. SKYBERG: Dr. Hall has touched upon the same thing that I wanted to bring out; that is, the machine work done in our large commercial establishments, machine bookkeeping, such as with the comptometer, for instance. Then there are in addition the devices by which record cards are kept, where if you want to get certain statistics, certain percentages, you just run the row of cards through the machine and the percentage comes out. A great deal of that work is done in large establishments where they must have a great deal of statistical work done, and, of course, it entails a great expenditure, probably, for machines on which to learn that type of work, but it is all manipulating skill. That is all it is, and I think it could be developed very easily.

Dr. PITTENGER: A silk hosiery mill in our city is the means of employment for many of our girls.

I should like to inquire whether anyone here has tried giving the girls an opportunity on the linotype. I have thought that that might be a very good addition to our work. Has anybody tried it?

Mr. POPE: We tried it, but it happened that the ones we trained went away to college or were married, so we do not know how they would have turned out.

Mr. DRIGGS: We have had a great deal of success with our girls in homes. The girls have taken domestic science work and have succeeded admirably in Ogden, and we could place a hundred more girls in that work if we had them.

Mr. MCINTIRE: We have started this year one class of girls in bookbinding. Of course, it is too early yet to know what the outcome will be, but we are hoping for good results there.

Mr. BRAY: We happen to have near the institution the home of the Bradley Mills. They take a large number of our deaf boys and girls in their factory, and a number of the heads of departments in that factory are young ladies and young men who have graduated from our institution, and they are among the best workers and best officials in that plant.

We also have near us the Holton band instrument factory, and practically all the engraving on the band instruments is done by deaf boys and girls. Mr. Holton, the president of the concern, has offered the board free instruction to our boys and girls who will take up this work. He tells us that a deaf boy or deaf girl is better equipped for brass engraving than hearing persons are, because the continual vibration from grinding on the brass does not annoy the deaf. One of our young men who finished school about ten years ago is at the head of that department. Another firm tried to get him away from the Holton factory the other day, with the result that the young man almost doubled his salary over night. We expect to put some one into our school who will give complete training in this particular line, because we are so near the factory.

Mr. GOODWIN: Along the line of Mr. Blattner's suggestion about labor unions, I should like to say that our deaf boys become members of labor unions and get journeymen's wages. We have a group of them at the best factories in the state, good bricklayers and good car-

penters and linotype operators and printers. They all join the labor unions and become part of them, and consequently they meet that situation.

Most of the girls, like most of their hearing sisters, go to school to prepare to be housewives, and almost all of them marry and become housewives. And that has really, I think, had a good deal to do with our policy in the training offered the girls.

I was impressed with what Mr. Driggs said about the possibility of drafting or mechanical drawing. This is a mere matter of information or report of progress. We recently put in a man of technical education from one of the western colleges for teachers, who is to have charge of the manual arts department. I am looking forward to having that principal of the industrial department that Mr. Driggs has spoken of.

Dr. GRUVER read a paper on

INDUSTRIAL ORGANIZATION AND TRAINING

Institutions for the deaf were pioneers in shopwork. They pointed the way, blazed the trail and built the road —to their everlasting credit. I use the word shopwork advisedly, for that is just what it was in those days. There was a time when the work of these shop classes attracted a great deal of attention, not so much because of the excellence of their work but because of the unique position they occupied in the field of general education, and the fact that we were dealing with handicapped children.

We wish to give full recognition to the incentive and lead given us by the early promoters of shopwork and pronounce it good. Are we, however, following our own lead?

In my judgment, from a limited observation, I am inclined to feel that the industrial instruction as offered in our schools for the deaf does not hold the same high place in general education to-day that shopwork did twenty-five

FOURTEENTH CONFERENCE OF SUPERINTENDENTS AND PRINCIPALS OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF
KNOXVILLE, TENN., OCTOBER 30—NOVEMBER 1, 1928

or thirty years ago. We became complacent. We knew that our shopwork was being well received by the employers and we had little difficulty in finding work for our deaf boys and later the girls as well. We needed no particular spur to better effort, for industrially the deaf were very successful. While this was going on, something entered the field to attract our attention. The public schools began to think and talk industrial instruction and soon applied it. At this point we became observers.

We no longer talk shopwork. Some call it trades teaching. I prefer industrial instruction, for we rarely teach a trade in all its essential elements. We do give our boys and girls enough industrial training so that they may become good apprentices upon leaving school. This, in my opinion, is very satisfactory. Is it sufficient? I think not. What do we need in our industrial departments? We need, in my judgment, first of all, less shopwork and more industrial instruction. By this I mean less showing how, by the teacher doing the work, and more teaching the child to do it himself. We all know excellent examples of very good work accomplished by the instructor. In order to do this we must have teachers. The day of the shop worker as instructor is rapidly passing. The demand to-day is for more teaching. Pedagogy has entered our shops.

I shall read an extract from a paper by Mr. Harry B. Brown, principal, Morris Hall, of the Pennsylvania Institution, which very clearly brings out this point of material products or boy and girl work versus industrial instruction.

> One of the dangers in our industrial school system to be carefully avoided is the construction of furniture or doing repair work, under the cloak of economy, as an exhibit product to sell industrial training to school boards and citizens.
>
> Production is necessary, but it must be held in check. It should only be carried on to the extent of educational needs. The real product, the boy or girl, is lost sight of in quest of a firmer stand-in with those more in sympathy with retrenchments of economy than efficiency in teaching methods.

"It is an easy matter to turn out vast amounts of material products in our school shops, but it is a real teaching job to convert raw student material into constructive-thinking individuals in a shop activity."

"A woodworking machine might be 'set up' and for weeks stock run through this machine in quantity production, but if the example of a person learning to run an automobile were applied, the machine would be stopped, the setting changed from time to time, and the boy taught to learn, by mistakes if necessary. The output of material products would be lessened, but the student would profit."

Another concrete illustration is a printing department getting out six to twelve copies of a school paper every semester, which would result in the duplication of fundamental operations. Pupils graduating from such a course of instruction would not be qualified to take their place in the commercial field beside pupils who have received systematic training covering a much shorter period of time.

"It is the old question of material product or the boy or girl production versus instruction. It is not the number of suits of clothes, shoes or articles of furniture turned out in a given time which determines the value of an instructor, but how much industry thinks of the graduate student, and also what the student in years to come will think of his school shopwork."

This brings us to the second need; coördination of the industrial and academic work of our institutions. This, in my judgment, cannot be done well from the classroom, but must be done in the shop by the industrial teacher and, until we are able to secure teachers capable of doing it, there will be no more coördination than we have now, which is exceedingly poor in quality even in our best institutions.

The third need is modern equipment. Possibly, with the exception of printing, the industrial equipment of the average institutions for the deaf is of the vintage of 1890, perhaps in some cases 1875. Very few are modern.

Better organization is the fourth need. Our industrial departments must be raised to the same high place that our academic departments hold. We must dignify shopwork in our schools, for is it not more by work that our pupils are made happy than by any other process of development? This is not meant, in any sense, to disparage academic effort, but to raise industrial instruction to something approximating academic efficiency.

The last that I shall mention is the adjustment of our curriculum to meet present-day needs. With a large percentage of the pupils attending our institutions not graduating and some who graduate not very well prepared to earn a living, can we not adjust our curriculum to better meet the needs of the average deaf child?

We shall have an opportunity to put some of our theories into practice before very long as our new gymnasium releases space in Morris Hall for additional classrooms. Renovating has already begun and plans are under way to relocate and readjust our printing plant about January 1st.

The space made available will be used to promote prevocational work. The development of the following courses are considered in keeping with modern educational procedure:

1. Trade kindergarten for beginners.
2. Chair caning and sloyd.
3. Try-out courses in painting, printing and woodwork.
4. Shoe repairing.
5. Tailoring.
6. Try-out work in the several sewing classes.

In other words, we are opening a primary section in our industrial department for the initial training of young boys and girls of from ten to fifteen years of age to find out their vocational bent. By so doing we hope to give the deaf children under our care a better education, a more complete development and broader opportunities.

Mr. GOODWIN: We will proceed to the next phase of our program which relates to Curricula in Schools for the Deaf. It will be opened with an address by Professor Fusfeld, of Gallaudet College, on

CURRICULUM TENDENCIES AND SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF

One of the most convincing contributions to the literature of our profession in recent years was that in the ANNALS for last March by Supt. O. L. McIntire of the Iowa School on "The College Angle Through State School Introspection." In his discussion, Mr. McIntire pointed out a number of conditions that should challenge the serious thought of every leader in our work. In particular, the phenomenal strides within the past quarter of a century made by high schools for hearing children in the matter of enrollment, equipment and curriculum were referred to, with the warning that such expansion spells hardship of a very definite kind when the products of our schools for the deaf go out to meet the newer competition of high school pupils in the field of employment. The remedy proposed is that our schools provide increased facilities for high school study so that our pupils will be on a more equal footing in grappling with the situation. It is a problem that should not, that cannot, be lightly brushed aside.

There is another aspect of recent trends in general education that should also be referred to here. Dr. Leonard V. Koos, of the University of Minnesota, recently published the results of an exhaustive study of the junior college movement in America.[1] One of the tendencies pointed out is that within the past hundred years there has been a decided shift downward of the materials of the college curriculum. In practically every subject there has been a drop to the lower years of the college course; that is, the lower classes have been reaching up into the upper years for their subject-matter. But the shift has not halted there. A great deal of the course material has passed

---

[1]Koos, Leonard V., "The Junior College," Vol. II, Ch. XVII, Research Publications of the University of Minnesota, Education Series, No. 5.

down into the high school, in the sciences, in languages, in mathematics, and in literature. Some of it has even found a place in the elementary school grades. So if we admit that there has been a widespread expansion of high school opportunities for hearing children, we must also recognize that this extension has been accompanied by an enrichment of the courses of study as an inheritance from college curricula. And all this is only part of the evidence of the revolution taking place in the field of general education.

The writer recalls a time just short of 25 years ago, a time when the recognition of handwork as part of the educational plan was beginning to seep into the consciousness of school authorities. We had reached the last grade in the public elementary school and we remember vividly our first lesson in manual training. The sloyd knife was the extent of our "shop" equipment, our classroom was the "shop" and our desks were our workbenches. There were 40 or so of us, each with a shiny new blade in right hand and a stick of wood in the other, both poised as our teacher—our regular classroom teacher—dictated. Then with the proper signal, "One-two-three-four," we all made the designated strokes in unison. Unfortunately, one boy's hand slipped and instead of making the proper stroke in the stick in his hand, he cut a gash in his thigh. At this display of gross incompetence, the entire class was deprived of sloyd knives, and we never saw them again. That was the writer's first and last lesson in manual training. That was 25 years ago.

A few weeks ago the writer returned to the same school and inquired of the principal as to the vocational training now offered there. All the pupils of the seventh and eighth grades take a prescribed course in hand training, the boys spending two periods per week at shopwork and the girls taking a like amount of work in domestic science. The work is definite, well planned and thoroughly equipped. This was not so 25 years ago.

A peek into the schools of the city in which the writer lives offers further proof that schools for hearing children are attempting to meet the demands of hand training. The general practice is as follows: The girls from the third to the sixth grades, inclusive, are given sewing once a week, and in the seventh and eighth grades, sewing, cooking and housekeeping, the last-named in especially equipped rooms rented for the purpose in a real apartment house in the city. For the boys in the sixth, seventh and eighth grades there is an excellent course in shopwork in well-equipped shops, and they are contemplating bringing in boys of the earlier grades.

This is not intended as a paper on industrial training. We have gone to great length on the subject because it seems to bear on a problem that is of direct concern to us.

That remarkable advances have been made in the junior and senior high schools of our country, in the consolidated schools, in the night schools, in the continuation schools, in the special opportunity schools, both in the academic and vocational content of their curricula, is all common knowledge. We are confronted with the fact that pupils in the high schools and children in the grades are, without sacrificing anything of the academic part of school work, slowly but surely coming abreast of pupils of schools for the deaf in industrial training, the very field which we have always been so certain we have dominated. The schools for the hearing are matching us at our own game, and who can say that we are matching them on the academic side? We are being crowded off both ends of the educational bench!

Mr. McIntire asks in effect: What chance do our deaf pupils, granted even that they complete the course, have when thrown against the keener competition resulting from the greatly expanded high school world of to-day? To this very important question must now be added still another: What chance will our pupils have if they are compelled to compete against hearing children who have

not only a better academic background but also an equal or better manual training? This makes it doubly necessary—if we are to enable our pupils to "put bread on the table and a little cash in the strong box"—for our industrial departments to outdo themselves in both scope and quality of work done, or that the academic departments take on extra work to counteract the gains made everywhere by hearing children; or better still, improvement along *both* these lines.

Fortunately, we can detect activity among some of our schools intended to meet this problem, activity directed toward increasing the high school content of the course of study. Schools such as the Rochester School, the Buffalo School, and more lately, the Ohio School and the St. Rita School, and possibly others, are now offering an approved four-year high school course as an addition to the regular curriculum. In a number of cases the advanced academic work covers a period of one or two years. In other schools there is no set course of study for high school work, whatever there is offered of such work being chiefly for the purpose of making easier the first year for those of their graduates who venture on into higher schools; in such cases it comprises only a preliminary and elementary study of such subjects as mathematics, history, languages, literature and the sciences. But this is only pointing the way; the movement to meet the schools for the hearing on their own ground must gain greater momentum.

It should be no difficult task to determine the lines of advance that schools for the deaf should take in the academic courses they offer. It would be a simple matter to discover the subject-matter comprising the course in the ordinary accredited high school. Such study would soon reveal that there is general agreement as to the things to which high school pupils, junior and senior, with the appropriate mental ability, should devote their time and efforts.

There are other aspects of the school program which, although not purely academic in nature, yet bear directly in their influence upon the course of study.

A fundamental feature of the high school program is the aim to develop in pupils the powers of self-reliance and self-confidence, the ability to work independently on given projects. If such be not the aims of our schools for the deaf, there can be little hope of successful high school work for even our brighter pupils. The writer of this paper obtained some idea of the situation from the answers to a question on an examination recently given in course to members of the freshman class at Gallaudet College. The discussion related to the ways in which life at college and life at the schools differed. The class, numbering 27 students from many different states, showed complete unanimity of opinion on one matter. To illustrate, we quote a very typical statement, chosen for this occasion from among the others because its language is more coherent than is customary:

> While at school, you are hardly allowed to think for yourself. I was told what to do and what not to do. I was told when I was supposed to dress up, when I had to brush my teeth, how often I had to wash my neck and ears and to polish my shoes. Even in the classroms I did not have to think much. Some of the lessons were so easy that I could turn in a perfect paper even though my mind was elsewhere while composing it. In the harder subjects the teachers took care to keep me from overtaxing what brain I had by working out my problems for me and letting me study them.
>
> I remember distinctly how a lady supervisor went through my locker every Wednesday morning and Saturday night and took out one shirt and one pair of stockings each time and a pair of underwear on Saturday night, and told me to put them on next time I dressed.
>
> Every one of my hours was supervised. My supervisor could tell exactly, while he was in his room, what each boy in his charge was doing, or would do, at a stated time.

Is it to be wondered at that students with this sort of background fail to make the grade at college where they find they must stand on their own feet and ply their work by the sweat of their own brows? It may be deemed advisable to account for every movement of the child's day with purposeful activity—and no doubt a well-ordered

school is conducted on such principles—but certainly it should not be in the restrictive sense at the sacrifice of initiative.

Another aspect of the training of pupils for higher school work relates to so simple a matter as training to think. Is it unreasonble to ask that prospective candidates for entrance to college show an ability to carry a thought through to a natural and logical conclusion? This does not mean the ability to memorize vast amounts of material from the textbook to be unleashed on the unsuspecting instructor, often in meaningless order. In the examinations for admission to college a question may call for an explanation of how a certain incident took place or how a certain result was obtained. It may be in composition, in reading, in arithmetic, in algebra. The question is answered correctly by a statement of the steps that lead, one by one, to the point referred to. Often the answer contains the facts desired, but unfortunately thrown together topsy-turvy fashion, indicating clearly that the pupil has learned to memorize but has not learned to think the matter out for himself.

There is still another item. Do not our teachers sometimes err on the side of affection? We recall a most distressing incident to which we were witness during the recent survey of schools for the deaf when we had occasion to see classes in action. In the high class of a northern school, a colored boy, black as ebony and built on the proportions of a mountain, got up to ask a question, to which the teacher, a frail, nervous, young lady, answered: "Yes, dear!" This is a splendid way to instill manhood in our pupils!

We could go on in this wise, but it is time to conclude. If in some quarters it is felt that the speech of our pupils is to-day better than it ever has been, to that we say, "Good!" If great improvement can be pointed to in the scope and organization of vocational training, to that we say, "Good!" If the academic course can now boast of

a richer content than was formerly the case, to that also we say, "Good!" But let us make certain that even with these greater opportunities at hand our pupils do not fail when they leave school, either because the general educational world is making greater strides in all sides of the school life, or because our pupils are not trained to the knowledge that the fruits of life can be obtained only by their own labor.

Mr. GOODWIN: Next is a paper by Mr. MCINTIRE on

THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM

The subject assigned me by the program committee was, "The Junior College Curriculum." I have chosen instead "The Senior High School Curriculum," believing that this in reality is what is wanted. Last year our Little Paper Family carried on, rather vigorously in some cases, a discussion of a kindred nature. The discussion was referred to and written upon under various headings, titles and subtitles. To refresh your memory I shall mention the following: A Junior College for the Deaf, A Technical High School for the Deaf, A Trades School for the Deaf, Higher Education for the Deaf, A Junior High School for the Deaf. A close review of the full discussion as set forth by the l. p. f. would very likely reveal still other titles. Several editors writing on the subject expressed the opinion that in a general way everybody was driving at the same objective. While there was unanimity of opinion as to the objective there was some disagreement over the plans to be followed in achieving the objective. An education for our deaf boys and girls beyond that now being provided by our state schools was generally agreed upon as the objective. Regardless of the name that has been or should be applied to this new school and regardless of the plan by which it is to be brought into being, it must, if it is ever to function, have a curriculum, and quite probably it should have several curricula if it is to be at all modern. Under the assignment made me

by the program committee, it is my understanding that I should give to you at this time my ideas of what a curriculum for this proposed school should be. Since I have chosen to call it a Senior High School Curriculum, I feel that I should first of all define my position in this matter. This will involve only a brief historical review.

Since the proposed school is to provide an education beyond that to be had in our present state schools, it has been necessary at the outset to go outside of our own profession in order to make a comparative study of schools of the desired type. It is generally admitted that pupils graduating from our state schools for the deaf have approximately completed the freshman year of the modern four-year high school or as far as educational attainment is concerned it would be just as proper to say, putting it in the language of the public school, that our graduates have completed the work of a ninth-grade elementary school. A number of recent surveys of our public schools have shown that a large part of the elementary schools comprise eight grades. This applies especially to the middle west and west. In the south most of the elementary schools have only seven grades. In New England there are a number of elementary schools with nine grades. Most of our state schools for the deaf are patterned after the first school for the deaf in America, which was established by Thomas H. Gallaudet at Hartford. Being a New England product, it is not surprising, therefore, that our schools have assumed the New England type, namely, that of a ninth-grade elementary school. But with a nation-wide demand for secondary education and an unprecedented growth in the public high schools, notable changes have been brought about and new tendencies are at hand. To-day, it is generally recognized in progressive sections of the United States that the rudimentary subjects taught in the public schools are fairly well covered by the time the sixth grade is completed. Up to and including the sixth grade a great similarity in subject-matter exists in

all public elementary schools. In the seventh grade the first appreciable differences arise. Here some of the rudimentary subjects are displaced by the informational subjects. It is to be expected that the informational needs in various sections of the country would differ. Since the seventh grade appears to be a natural division point in the subject-matter taught, the idea was conceived of combining the seventh and eighth grades of the elementary school with the ninth grade or freshman year of the four-year high school into a separate school and giving it the name of junior high school. This combination leaves only three years for the senior high school. This division of the public school systems has given rise to the so-called 6-3-3 plan. Applying this division to our schools for the deaf, it will be seen at once since we are covering approximately ninth-grade work that we are therefore doing the six years of elementary and the three years of junior high school work. To say that our schools for the deaf are not doing any of the work of the senior high school would not do serious violence to the facts. If the schools for the deaf are to expand upward, the next school to be embraced will be the senior high school. Hence my subject—"The Senior High School Curriculum."

From a national standpoint, only a small percentage of school districts are now operating under the 6-3-3 plan. The great majority are still carrying on under the 8-4 plan. Recent surveys, however, indicate that a great many communities are changing over, as rapidly as means will permit, to the 6-3-3 plan and that in America, a definite tendency exists in the direction of the six-year elementary school, the three-year junior high and the three-year senior high school. In this connection mention should be made of the fact that the junior college, comprising two years' work beyond the senior high school, has already sprung into existence as a part of the public school system having been adopted by some of the most progressive centers. No one can say at this time just what the future holds in

store for the public junior college. It is freely predicted, however, and with a good deal of positiveness, that the senior high school will soon be a universal institution in so far as American education is concerned; in fact, this goal has already been reached in many sections. Dr. Edward A. Ross, professor of sociology at the University of Wisconsin, predicts that within the next 25 years all boys and girls of America will be expected to obtain not less than a senior high school education, and in the event a boy or girl is denied such, the proper official whose duty it is to watch over this particular field, will insist on knowing just why this education is being withheld.

Enough has been said of the public schools to indicate that great changes are going on within the system. The most important changes, as might be expected, are those dealing with the curricula, especially the curricula of the junior and senior high schools. Very little resemblance can be found between the curriculum of the first high school established in America, which was at Boston in 1821, and the curricula of a modern high school of to-day In its origin in Boston the public high school was designed to meet the needs of young people who were not expecting to pursue a college education. As this institution spread to other towns feeling the need of secondary education, it was called upon to prepare pupils for college. So much importance was attached to the single idea of preparing pupils to enter college that for several generations it was the chief factor and in most instances the only factor determining the character of the public high school curriculum. Even to-day the college entrance requirements exert considerable influence on curriculum making. It is, however, no longer the only factor to be considered. The complexity of American society, the advancement of knowledge, especially scientific knowledge, and the gradual elevation of educational standards among our people have created an insistent demand for a broadened secondary education that will take into account a great variety of

occupational interests. As a consequence, the last quarter of a century has seen a greatly and rapidly expanding high school curriculum. Instead of the narrow academic program with but 25 to 30 units of work, the progressive communities of to-day offer programs in their public high schools which represent widely divergent needs and include from 50 to more than 100 units of subject-matter.

In expanding the high school program, officials in charge of formulating the high school policy were confronted with two alternatives. Either new types of schools would have to be established or the new interest would have to be brought into the traditional academic school. Some communities have followed the one plan, some the other, resulting in the former case in establishing the differentiated or specialized school and in the latter the comprehensive school. Fifteen to 20 years ago this question developed into a vigorous controversy. Victory, however, seems to lie with those who supported the comprehensive school. To support this conclusion the experience of a large number of cities should be given and could be given were it not for limitation of time. The experience of a few cities must, therefore, serve to reflect the experience of the many. Newton, Mass., adopted a system of differentiated schools several years ago which it is now abandoning. At the time it was established, the Manual Arts High School of Los Angeles was, as its name indicates, a specialized school. To-day, however, it is considered a comprehensive school. In Cleveland the academic high schools have gradually added to their curricula until now they compare favorably with the comprehensive type of other cities. At the same time, its technical high school has added to its curriculum until now it is no longer a specialized school. The experience of these cities and many others suggests that a specialized school has great difficulty in remaining specialized. The traditional courses handed down by the older or academic schools carry with them great social prestige and dominate the secondary

schools. Under such conditions pupils are unduly influenced in choosing a program of studies. Investigators in the field of secondary education tell us that the comprehensive school is the dominant type of secondary institution in the United States. This is a problem worthy of our study at this time, but is beyond the scope of this paper.

In most of the high schools recently investigated in fifteen of our representative cities, we find the program of studies organized into a series of curricula each of which contains its own group of subjects. Having chosen the curriculum which he thinks most nearly meets his needs, the pupil finds from 50 to 75 per cent of his subjects prescribed. The remaining subjects which are to complete his program are chosen by the pupil, usually under faculty guidance, from the lists of electives. The curricula of these fifteen cities are tabulated below:

Atlanta
1. College preparatory
2. General
3. Home economics
4. Commercial
5. Technical

Berkeley
1. College preparatory
2. Agriculture
3. Architecture
4. Chemistry
5. Commerce
6. Engineering
7. English
8. Medicine
9. Public health
10. Science
11. Bookkeeping and accounting

Cleveland
1. Academic
2. Commercial
3. Boys' technical
4. Girls' technical

Detroit
No curricula—System of constants and variables

Joliet
1. Literature and arts A
2. Literature and arts B
3. Engineering
4. Agriculture
5. Teacher-training
6. Medicine
7. Music and art
8. Business administration
9. Secretarial service
10. Clerical service
11. Mercantile service
12. Industrial arts A
13. Industrial Arts B
14. Dressmaking service
15. Home nursing
16. Commercial food service

Kansas City
No curricula—System of constants and variables

Lincoln
1. College preparatory
2. General
3. Commercial
4. Fine arts
5. Home economics
6. Mechanic arts
7. Music
8. Normal training

Los Angeles
1. Agricultural
2. Art
3. Drafting
4. Engineering preparatory
5. Home economics
6. Literary
7. Music
8. Scientific
9. Social science
10. Accounting
11. Secretarial
12. Salesmanship
13. Automobile industry
14. Building industry
15. Electrical industry
16. Mechanic arts
17. Printing
18. Elective

New Orleans
1. Home economics
2. College preparatory
3. Normal preparatory
4. Classical
5. Modern language
6. Science
7. General
8. Commercial (4 years)
9. Bookkeeping (2 years)
10. Phonography (2 years)

Newton
1. Classical
2. Scientific
3. General
4. Business
5. Stenographic
6. Clerical
7. Household arts
8. Agriculture
9. Printing
10. Electricity
11. Machine work
12. Cabinet and patternmaking
13. Drafting
14. Automobile
15. Carpentry

Pueblo
1. College preparatory
2. General

Rochester
1. College preparatory (arts and sciences)
2. College preparatory (engineering)
3. General
4. General business—bookkeeping
5. Stenography
6. Retail distribution
7. Industrial arts

St. Louis
1. General
2. Scientific
3. Classical
4. Fine arts
5. Manual training (4 years)
6. Home economics (4 years)
7. Accounting (4 years)
8. Stenography (4 years)
9. Manual training (2 years)
10. Home economics (2 years)
11. Bookkeeping (2 years)
12. Stenography (2 years)
13. Printing (2 years)

Salt Lake City
1. Classical
2. Scientific
3. English
4. Normal preparatory
5. Home economics
6. Mechanical arts
7. General business
8. Stenography
9. Accounting

Trenton
1. College preparatory
2. Normal
3. General (girls)
4. General (boys)
5. General business
6. Secretarial

Probably the most significant fact brought out by a study of this list of curriculum offerings is the great diversity of practice among the cities. It will be noticed that Kansas City and Detroit have no specially organized curricula but operate under a system of constants and

variables. The constants are required of all students, but make up only a part of the pupil's program. The remaining subjects which are to complete the program are then selected, under guidance, from among the variables. In substance, this procedure differs very little from that employed in the schools offering differentiated curricula where required subjects are prescribed and the others completing the program are taken from the electives. Proponents of the constant and variable system, however, claim that the new interests fare better than they do when listed under a specially named curriculum. There is a wide range in the number of curricula offered. Pueblo stands at one extreme with an offering of two, while Los Angeles stands at the other extreme with an offering of eighteen. Names applied to the different curricula are intended to indicate the character of the latter and in most cases answer the purpose quite admirably. A generation ago the differentiating factor was some academic interest. To-day the differentiating basis is fundamentally economic or vocational.

It could go without saying that it will be a long time before our schools for the deaf will be able to develop a modern high school with a curriculum offering such as that displayed by the Los Angeles list of eighteen separate and distinct curricula. At the Iowa School, however, I do not believe it would be a matter of great difficulty to work out for our proposed senior high school a program of studies embracing five differentiated curricula. My list would include the following:

1. College preparatory
2. General
3. Home economics
4. Industrial arts
5. Agriculture

Some interesting facts are revealed by dividing up the high-school subject matter in the high schools of each of the 15 cities referred to into eleven great divisions and then showing the number of units of work offered in

each of the divisions. A unit of work as used here involves four or five recitations per week for an entire school year.

Probably the most significant fact revealed by this study is the wide variation in the number of units of work offered in these cities. The total offering ranges from 51 units in Pueblo to 127½ in Los Angeles, while the average for the fifteen cities is 79. The greatest emphasis is placed on the industrial arts with an average of 13 units. The foreign languages rank second with 12½ units and the commercial subjects third, with 12. These three groups of subjects make up almost one-half of the total program. At the other extreme we find physical education with 3 units, art with 4 and music with 4½. Home economics and the four academic divisions—English, mathematics, natural science and social science—receive only moderate emphasis. Comparing one city with another regarding emphasis placed on the four academic divisions, there is a surprising amount of uniformity. In the newer subjects, on the other hand, we find a wide variation. For instance, New Orleans offers only 2 units of work in industrial arts, while Los Angeles has 30 units to offer.

The number of units of work offered in a particular subject may convey an altogether erroneous impression of its importance, for the mere provision in a program of studies for certain materials of instruction is of little consequence. Only as pupils are influenced to pursue the subjects offered will these subjects produce educational results. A study has been made of the percentage of the total number of pupil recitation hours devoted to each of the eleven great divisions of subject matter of the high schools of each of the fifteen cities previously referred to. According to this study, almost one-fifth of the pupils' time, or 18.8 per cent, is devoted to English, which leads all the other subjects in this respect. The commercial subjects rank second, consuming 12.4 per cent of the pupils' time. As is seen, there exists a wide

gap between this division and English. The commercial subjects hold second place only by a narrow margin, being closely followed, and in the order named, by social science, foreign language, mathematics and natural science. Thus it is seen that the academic subjects still retain their traditional place in the foreground of our high-school curricula, while the newer interests, the commercial branches excepted, occupy a less prominent place than would be indicated by the number of units of work offered. The industrial arts, which held first place in the number of units of work offered, drops to eighth place when measured in terms of pupil recitation time.

In working out our senior high-school curricula for the deaf it would appear the part of wisdom to shun the commercial subjects as a group, for the figures just given would indicate that the commercial field, if not already overrun, stands a good chance to become so in the near future. The field of industrial arts, on the other hand, shows little chance of becoming overcrowded. And since some of our schools for the deaf are already doing excellent work in this department, it would be the wise thing to do to continue this work in our proposed senior high schools by offering advanced courses.

The fact that students are devoting a larger percentage of their recitation time to certain subjects than they are to others might lead us to the erroneous conclusion that certain subjects are very popular with the student body. As you may have suspected, those who administer the high school curricula are of the opinion that certain subjects are more valuable to the pupil than certain other subjects. In all probability this is a logical conclusion. Hence, those subjects which appear to be so popular with pupils are being taken by them because they are required to do so by their administrators. These required subjects are called constants, and all pupils must include them in their program of studies whether this or that course has been chosen. English leads the field among the required subjects or constants. Physical education ranks second

and the social sciences third. Approximately 80 per cent of the time devoted to the constants is given to these three major divisions of the subject-matter. If the public high schools give such a prominent place to English, a high school for the deaf, I believe you will agree with me, should give it equal or even greater emphasis. In our state schools for the deaf where pupils not only attend school but live both day and night, physical education should obviously be assigned a more prominent place than in the public high school. The social sciences which have so much to do with training for citizenship should receive as much of the pupils' time in our proposed senior high school as in the senior high schools already in existence. The foreign language groups and the commercial subjects are not found among the constants in any of the high schools of these fifteen cities. Regardless of their popularity among pupils, the function of these subjects is recognized as that of meeting specialized needs. A generation ago the foreign languages and mathematics were considered the heart and soul of the high school curriculum. To-day, the foreign languages are not included among the constants and mathematics has slipped down to freshman requirements, though a few high schools require it in the sophomore year. There is sufficient evidence, according to one author writing on curriculum making, to suggest that there is now going on a radical shift of emphasis in the high school constants and that in the future the prescribed subjects will be composed largely of English, physical education, social science, natural science, and the fine and practical arts.

In comparing the courses of study offered by our schools for the deaf with those offered in the public schools, the statement is frequently made, and properly so, that in the beginning classes and lower grades there is obviously and of necessity very little similarity, but in the upper grades the two courses approach each other quite closely, both types of schools using the same textbooks in some

instances. If now the schools for the deaf are to embrace the senior high school, very few differences should exist in corresponding curricula of these departments of the two classes of schools. There should be more identities than differences.

After examining a number of curricula offered in the senior high schools of various cities and towns, and those worked out by the departments of education of several different states, it becomes increasingly evident that many of these could well be made the basis of the curriculum offerings of our proposed senior high schools for the deaf. Accordingly, a few sample curricula selected from a number of proposals gotten out by the Department of Education of the state of Ohio are herewith presented:

TENTH GRADE

GENERAL

Required
- English
- History, Ancient and early European
- Biology
- Physical education

Elective
- Latin or modern language
- Plane geometry
- Home economics
- Industrial arts

HOME ECONOMICS

Required
- English
- Food study, planning and serving of meals, textiles and elementary dressmaking
- Ancient and early European history, or hygiene, sanitation, and home nursing
- Physical education

Elective
- Biology
- Plane geometry
- Foreign language
- Commercial subject

INDUSTRIAL

Required
- English
- Pattern making and foundry practice, or printing (mechanical drawing a part of course except printing)
- Physical education

Elective
- Applied mathematics
- Biology
- Ancient and early European history
- Advanced mechanical drawing

AGRICULTURE

Required
- English
- Animal husbandry and poultry
- Farm shop
- Physical education

Elective
- Ancient and early European history
- Plane geometry
- Commerce and industry (½)
- Commercial arithmetic or farm accounts (½)

ELEVENTH GRADE

General

Required
- English
- Modern European history
- Physical education

Elective
- Latin or modern language
- Chemistry
- Advanced algebra (½)
- Solid geometry (½)
- Public speaking (½)
- Argumentation and debate (½)

Home Economics

Required
- English
- House planning and furnishing, and dressmaking and millinery
- Chemistry (household)
- Modern European history or world history (required if ancient and early European history is not taken)

Elective
- See General Course

Industrial

Required
- English
- Modern European history or world history
- Machine and forge work, or advanced cabinetmaking, or printing
- Physical education

Elective
- Chemistry
- Advanced mechanical drawing
- Modern language
- Advanced algebra (½)
- Solid geometry (½)

Agricultural

Required
- English
- Farm engineering
- Chemistry
- Modern European history or world history
- Physical education

TWELFTH GRADE

General

Required
- English
- American history (½)
- Civics or problems of American democracy (½)
- Physical education

Elective
- Latin or modern language
- Physics
- Economics (½)
- Elementary sociology (½)
- Higher algebra (½)
- Trigonometry (½)

Home Economics

Required
- English
- American history (½)
- Civics (½)
- Home management, household account and budgets, and elementary dietetics and child care
- Physical education

Elective
- See General Course

Industrial

Required
- American history (½)
- Civics (½)
- Physics
- Shop (electric, machine, sheet metal, or printing)
- Physical education

Elective
- English
- Modern language
- Economics (½ to 1)
- Elementary sociology (½)
- Higher algebra (½)
- Trigonometry (½)

Agriculture

Required
- Soils and farm management
- Physics
- American history (½)
- Civics (½)
- Physical education

Elective
- English
- Rural economics (½)
- Rural sociology (½)
- Advanced algebra (½)
- Solid geometry (½)

A college preparatory curriculum is not included among the proposals just presented. However, students wishing to prepare for college or university should elect at least two years of one of the foreign languages, ascertain the entrance requirements of the school which they expect to attend and thus avoid the possibility of choosing subjects for which the school will give no credits.

The number of curricula offered by a senior high school is, within limits, a function of its size. However, it does not depend so much on the number of students in the school as it does on the number of teachers in the faculty. In this particular a school for the deaf has a distinct advantage. For example, a public high school with 200 pupils could, allowing an average of 40 pupils to the teacher, get along very nicely with five teachers. A senior high school for the deaf with a teaching staff of five teachers can manage only 50 pupils, allowing an average of 10 pupils to the teacher. The five teachers in the one school should handle approximately the same amount of curriculum matter as in the other.

It is not expected that the curricula listed in this paper as a mere working basis will, *per se,* fulfill the educational needs of all sections of the country. That practice which is best for one community may not necessarily be best for another. It should be kept in mind that America is not only a wonderful country in which to live, but has also a vast territory, with a great variety of natural resources, climate, industries, and cultural tradition. Where these differences are ignored, to that extent will misfits find their way into the curricula. On the other hand, important factors are tending to bring about greater uniformity among the schools of the nation. Rapid communication, a radio in every home, the greatest railroad systems in the world, the greatest network of highways and airways in the world, the greatest number of automobiles in the world, resulting in the greatest movement of population in the world, are all factors which are rapidly blot-

ting out the earlier lines of demarcation, changing the interests of the different sections into the interest of a nation, and that nation, the greatest of all nations—the United States of America.

Mr. GOODWIN: Our next number is a paper by Dr. HALL on

REQUIREMENTS AND COURSES AT GALLAUDET

The scholastic requirements for admission to the preparatory class of Gallaudet College are, I believe, fairly familiar to all members of the Conference. They are published each year in our college catalogue, which is sent regularly to all heads of schools. These requirements demand the passing of examinations in English composition, reading, grammar, arithmetic, and algebra, and the passing of examinations or the certification by certain schools of satisfactory work done by the pupil in physics, American history, and English history. The list of schools from which certificates are accepted is also published in our annual catalogue. All of these matters so far mentioned should be well known and should not require further explanation.

There are, however, further details which I wish to explain and enlarge upon at this time. All papers which are submitted to the college faculty are carefully read by those who have prepared the examinations and are marked, as a rule, without the instructor's knowing from what school the candidate comes. The minimum for passing in any subject is 6.5 on a scale of 10. The minimum *average* mark acceptable for admission, based on the written examinations sent to our faculty, is also 6.5, on the scale of 10. In recent years all of the candidates for admission to the preparatory class have submitted certificates from their schools when possible. This means that they have actually written papers in only five subjects. These five tests are often divided between two years. Our faculty has decided not to admit students who do not pass at least three out of these five subjects and who do not also obtain the gen-

eral average mentioned before of 6.5 in all tests which they do attempt.

There is the further requirement that is sometimes evidently not well understood, that the candidate shall be of good moral character and shall be in good physical condition.

The matter of obtaining free scholarships in Gallaudet College is not really a subject for discussion in my paper. I wish to say, however, in passing, that the prime requirement before applications can even be considered is the passing of the student in sufficient studies to justify an application. Even with our moderate standards for entering the preparatory class there are many who fail. Out of 608 candidates in the past five years, 177 have failed in arithmetic, 164 in reading, 160 in grammar, 132 in algebra, and 113 in composition. Practically half have been admitted, though quite a number have not been able to come for financial reasons.

Are our standards for admission too high? I cannot think so after personal experience in teaching this fall our freshman class in mathematics, and after reading compositions in English from preparatory students admitted this year.

[Dr. Hall read examples of original English compositions, explaining that they were for the information of the Conference and not for publication.]

If we compare our examinations with those given elsewhere, the question arises as to how many units a deaf student must have to his credit upon entering Gallaudet College. This can only be answered by considering not only the requirements for admission to the preparatory class but also the studies required for admission to the freshman class of the college department.

The courses given to our first year, or preparatory, students, are plane geometry, advanced algebra, ancient and medieval history, English, first-year Latin, drawing, and use of the library. When these courses have been success-

fully completed and the student is entitled to enter our freshman class, how many of the fifteen units required for admission to most colleges can our deaf boy or girl be said to have to his or her credit? By the greatest stretch of consideration in his favor we might allow him two units in English, two and one-half units in mathematics, three units in history, one unit in physics, and one-half unit in drawing, or a total of nine units. Our course in the use of the library is not duplicated, as far as I know, in ordinary high schools. Then comes, of course, the question of the value of one year of Latin and of the manual training received in most of our schools by both boys and girls. We might add one more unit for these. It seems difficult to say, considering the manner in which I believe physics and history are taught in most of our schools, granting all possible credit, that the boy or girl at Gallaudet College entering our freshman year can claim more than 10 per cent of the fourteen to fifteen standard units required generally among our good colleges. It would seem, therefore, that our freshman boys and girls begin their four years' work for a degree at least a year behind their hearing brothers and sisters. When we look over the good high school courses of the present day, there seems to be no doubt of this fact. Drawing, plane geometry, elementary and advanced algebra, American history, English history, and ancient history, physics or general science, a year of Latin, a year of French or German, and three years of English are usually covered by the high school student before reaching the senior year in high school. The final high school work in English is often difficult and more advanced than that given to our preparatory students. I doubt very much whether the laboratory facilities in our schools enable the latter to give such courses in physics as are usually given to high school students during their first year of this study. While it is quite true that many high school students in these days may enter the last year without having

studied Latin at all, and quite possibly without having had advanced algebra, they have been obliged to substitute modern languages such as French, German, or Spanish, general science, chemistry, or other courses which are practically never offered in our schools for the deaf. Not only is this true, but many high school students carry their study of Latin or mathematics or science or modern languages further than it is possible for us to arrange for at the present time until our students have gone beyond the freshman class.

It is interesting to note the large number of failures in study among preparatory students. They are not confined to any one subject and have continued over so many years that they cannot be laid to any one teacher. Teaching methods might account for some of the trouble, but after all, I must conclude that many students admitted to the preparatory class are not mentally equipped for higher education and should not have attempted it.

The four-year course at Gallaudet, beginning with the freshman year, has been carefully laid out to offer to young people, and to require from them, a broad range of study. In the freshman year plane trigonometry, solid geometry, and elementary mechanics are required subjects, as is also second-year Latin. English composition, modern history, business methods, and drawing are also required. The women students are given a special course in the last term in right living, while the young men may take work in plane surveying of a very elementary character, to fix in their minds the principles of trigonometry. Opportunities to take work in addition to required subjects are not many in this year. Printing is offered to a limited number of the boys and domestic art to the young women. In the sophomore year the study of physics, botany, and chemistry is required. English is continued, and in addition, students are required to take the equivalent of two recitations weekly throughout the year in either mechanical drawing, agriculture, library management, domestic

art, or printing. In the junior year the usual course includes French, zoology, physiology, political history, and civics, ethics and political economy, with advanced English. The student is required, however, to carry seventeen hours of weekly recitations, and must make up these hours by additional study in chemistry, agriculture, domestic art, domestic science, library management, advanced mathematics, or printing. During the present senior year we are offering second-year French, second-year German, commercial law, astronomy, geology, psychology, sociology, logic, and theme writing. The required number of weekly recitations is sixteen. Advanced chemistry, advanced mathematics, interior decoration, costume design, domestic science, and printing are also offered, and some substitutions may be made from among these studies for the courses usually pursued. Physical training is required throughout the whole college course.

The number of units demanded for graduation—a daily recitation throughout twelve weeks, or one term, being considered a unit—is one hundred and ninety-eight hours above the preparatory year, excluding the requirements in physical training. The usual requirements elsewhere are one hundred and twenty units, a unit being a daily recitation for about eighteen weeks. Our degrees are confined to those of B. A. or B. S., according to the course pursued. Our feeling is that, while our students may enter the freshman class a full year or more behind their hearing brothers and sisters as far as hours of study and subjects are required, they do not slip behind in their attainments to any large extent. Our extra curricular activities such as the management of football, baseball, and basketball, tennis, the conduct of the college magazine, the production of plays, and the general individual life pursued by the student furnish good training in this direction. It has been proven a number of times by our superior students that they can obtain a collegiate degree elsewhere, with hearing students, by a year's work after grad-

uation. It has also been possible for some of our graduates to pursue in high-grade institutions such as George Washington, University of Pennsylvania, University of Michigan, and Johns Hopkins, successful graduate work after leaving our institution.

I heartily agree with the opinion that every institution of any size in our country should consider most seriously the adding of at least two years to the academic work now offered, in this way approximating the high school work given freely to every blind and every hearing child of the state whose mental equipment is sufficient to warrant such instruction.

The establishment of a single junior college, even in the middle states will not, in my opinion, provide the greatest benefit for the greatest number of our deaf pupils. More advanced trades teaching as well as more advanced academic instruction, it seems to me, is the right of every deaf child in every state in the Union. Hundreds of these children will be benefited by such advanced opportunities at home, while few will be able to take the course which might be offered at a new junior college or trades school, no matter how centrally located. If the curriculum at Gallaudet College can be broadened, as we hope it may be, by additional technical courses; if it can be extended a year longer at the top by adding further studies in modern languages, mathematics, natural and political science, and if the work of the present preparatory and freshman classes can be done by our state schools, I feel that Gallaudet College can maintain its dignity and position as a real institution of distinctly higher learning. It can give to those who are really well equipped mentally a better training to fit them at least in an elementary way for the professional life of teachers, preachers, chemists, biologists, scientific farmers, architects, publishers, and home makers. Such attainments have been possible in the past for our graduates, and are desirable and neces-

sary in the future if they are to maintain their place in the world.

Dr. JONES: Mr. President, I have a resolution that I want to offer, and after I have read it I will move that it be referred to the committee on resolutions, yet to be appointed.

Resolved by the Conference of Superintendents and Principals of American Schools for the Deaf, at its Fourteenth Meeting held in Knoxville, Tennessee, October 30 to November 2, 1928, that it memorialize the Congress of the United States and the Federal Commissioner of Education,

1. That the graduates of the state schools for the deaf, ambitious for a higher education both in academic studies and in technical, vocational and industrial training, do not have an equal opportunity with the hearing high school pupils in the public schools of achieving it.
2. That there are not enough of such deaf pupils in any one state to warrant the expense of making provision for this advanced education and training, but in the whole of the United States there are several hundred who could be brought into a central junior college, if such were provided by the United States Government.
3. That it is an opportunity for the national government to do for the higher education of the deaf what the states cannot do, in equalizing their opportunities with the ample provisions made for the higher education of the hearing.
4. That the deaf are capable of receiving said education and greatly profiting thereby, adding to their power and value as citizens and as producers in providing for their own families.

The said Conference therefore prays that the Congress of the United States will establish a junior preparatory college for academic and industrial work for the deaf on a large farm of rich land somewhere near the center of the country.

Resolved, That the president and the secretary are instructed to prepare this memorial in due form and present it to the Congress and to the Commissioner of Education, and that the president appoint a committee of three members to prosecute it.

I am presenting this at this time out of order, in a sense, but a part of this discussion, so that you may all have time to think it over, and I plead with you to think it over without prejudice, without tradition and without any fear of wanting to harm Gallaudet College. Of all persons in this room I have the greatest reason for loving and honoring the college. It has been very kind to me, and I would be the worst ingrate in the world to do anything else but praise it and help it. This plan, as I see it, will relieve the college of the large preparatory class

that it must maintain, and enable the college to do the higher and better work, and to be really a greater and better Gallaudet, as Dr. Hall wants it to be.

So I am extending, as I see it—and I know it—a helping hand and not a destroying hand. I honor the college and its faculty and its work, and feel that in this resolution I am acting as its very best friend.

Also, if the committee on resolutions wishes to report on it, or if it does not, I should like to ask for thirty minutes of unencumbered time when the committee makes its report on resolutions, so that it will not be hurried or squelched or in any way hampered in the discussion of the greatest problem that has been presented before this Conference since the college was founded.

Dr. HALL: Mr. President, I would like to say that, speaking for myself and also speaking, I am sure, for the faculty of Gallaudet College, nobody connected with the college in any way feels that such a proposition as Dr. Jones offers is at all inimical to Gallaudet College or its interests. The only basis on which it should be discussed is the greatest good for the greatest number, and I think that some of our friends will differ with Dr. Jones, possibly, on that basis. I shall be very glad to see it discussed, and I sincerely hope that everyone will feel that the college is not opposed to anything that this Conference will decide is the best for the deaf boys and girls of this country.

[It was the sense of the Conference that a special hour of discussion later on in the program be devoted to a consideration of the matter proposed by Dr. Jones.]

Whereupon,, at 12:10 o'clock p. m., the Conference recessed till 2 o'clock p. m. this day.

A most pleasant occasion of the day was a luncheon tendered to the members of the Conference at 12:45 p. m. in the banquet room of the Hotel Farragut, by Mr. Thomas S. Marr, an alumnus of the Tennessee School for the Deaf,

and Mr. Joseph W. Holman, both prominent architects of the state of Tennessee.

SECOND SESSION: WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON
OCTOBER 31, 1928

The Conference reassembled at 2:00 o'clock p. m.

Mr. GOODWIN: I wish to name the following committees:

Committee on Resolutions: Mr. MCMANAWAY, Dr. MCALONEY, Dr. TAYLOR, Mr. POPE, and Mr. DAY.

Committee on Necrology: Mr. BOOTH, Dr. PITTENGER, Mr. FORRESTER, Mr. BRAY and Mr. MCINTIRE.

Committee on Nominations: DR. JONES, Mr. STEVENSON, Mr. CONNOR, Mrs. POORE and Mr. BLATTNER.

I will ask Dr. Gruver to preside this afternoon.

Dr. GRUVER: We will take up the program where we left off just before luncheon. The subject for discussion, led by Mr. Pope, is on

OUR ULTIMATE AIMS

Mr. POPE: The public has a right to know what our ultimate aims are. The children are the children of the public; they are not our children, and the money that is furnished for their education is public money. So the public is entitled to know what we intend to do and how we intend to prepare our pupils for the life they will have to live.

As life constantly changes, so ultimate aims always change, and with them our curriculum changes. Historically, education began with the church, the church dominating education in the beginning. There were two phases of education: vocational education; that is, training for the priesthood, and cultural education, or training the public in religion.

Next, the military forces dominated, and education was the training of officers for the army, and the training of the soldiers and civilians to support the army.

Next, a sort of aristocracy of politicians was in control, and vocational education consisted of the training of lead-

ers in politics, while for the rest, citizens were trained to fall in line and submit.

Then, in a republic, the vocational training really became training for citizenship.

Last night Dr. Thackston said that the aim of the curriculum, as well as our ultimate aim, was to find out where we are and where we ought to be, but when we start out on this voyage to discover where we are and where we ought to be, we run into a great many contending factions.

First, there is the viewpoint of the individual versus the social group. The educational psychologists say we have to develop the individual from within, that we have to develop that personality and make it fit into our society. The social psychologists say we ought to develop the group for the interest of society, and the individual ought not to be the ultimate aim. But when we analyze the two viewpoints, we find they are both right. They dovetail into each other. We have to train the individual and we have to train him to be a member of a group, so that instead of the two schools being opposed to each other, it is merely a question of emphasizing one side a little more than the other.

Then we come to the philosophical versus the scientific viewpoint. There are a few who believe that we ought to work out philosophical principles from within to control our education, and the scientific man believes in exhaustive scientific analysis. The latter claims that only by analyzing every activity down to its smallest details can we arrive anywhere. They are both right. The scientific man has to use some philosophy in obtaining and formulating the general principles that he is going to follow in his scientific work. Again, it is just a question of stressing one aspect a little more than the other.

Then we have the child life versus adult life. There are those who accept the motto of Dewey: "Education is life," that the child should live and we should develop

that life in each stage. They are right in opposing the old form of education where we looked at the adult and tried to prepare the child directly for the life the adult leads without considering the life that the child leads as a child.

But there is another side to it. We have to look ahead and see what we are preparing a child for, at the same time that we are developing him as he grows.

Here, also, in the last analysis, there is little room for dissension. Again, one simply emphasizes one side a little more than the other.

Then we have the psychic versus the material. Some say that we should make everything vocational, everything to help our pupils make a living and get along materially in life. Others say that appreciation of music and such things as that are just as important as, say, typewriting. There is really no room for contention here, because the two viewpoints are supplemental. We have to take into consideration the psychic needs of our pupils, just as we have to take into consideration their material needs.

So, while we are working out our ultimate aims we want to be very careful not to be too one-sided. Looking at it from a broad viewpoint we see that they all have their strong points and that they fit in with each other.

The N. E. A. worked out a program for ultimate aims. The first point on their program is health, both physical and mental. One must be physically fit and mentally fit. Then they put down as second a command of fundamental principles. This is rather a vague term, but I presume "fundamental principles" mean the knowledge and use of English, reading, writing and arithmetic. Worthy home making was the third; a vocation was the fourth; citizenship the fifth, although this is a rather vague term again; use of leisure the sixth; and ethical culture the seventh, the latter including religion and morals. These

points, with the grouping modified, were thoroughly covered by Dr. Thackston in his lecture last evening.

In arranging our ultimate aims we must consider always the principle I spoke of a moment ago, the principle of change. We have to fit children for changing conditions which they will have to face as they grow up.

The element of utility comes into it. We have to train them for something, that which is going to be the most useful. The point of relative importance we have to decide in making the curriculum is: What is the best and the most important?

The surveyor says one of our ultimate aims is to bridge the gap between the general intelligence of our pupils and their educational accomplishments. That is one thing we will have to accomplish. But we all recognize that one of our fundamental difficulties is conquering English. The public schools recognize this, and it is surprising what importance they place on English, English in the narrower sense, and reading and literature as separate items. As Judd says, English is an instrument of civilization that is to be placed in the hands of the child. It is a key to all knowledge. The first thing a child wants to do is to express himself so others can understand him. He has to acquire the ideas of others, and he must have comprehension in the English language. All lessons and school activities are means to secure better results in English. The first thing a child has to do in conquering any activity is to master the mechanics, to learn to handle the tools. Experiments have shown that the failure to acquire knowledge in the public schools is due to inadequate power of reading. The Trenton public schools have carried on some experiments that have attracted wide attention. When a pupil reaches the senior high school, his reading ability—that is, the extent of his vocabulary and the comprehension of paragraphs—is measured by a series of standard tests, and his accomplishments in literary subjects such as English, languages, history, geography, etc., are com-

pared with his recorded reading ability. This ratio, which is called the efficiency quotient, shows definitely whether each pupil is working up to his full capacity, and if anyone falls below what he should do, judged by his reading ability, it is comparatively simple to explain this both to the pupil and his parents and thus obtain their coöperation.

This indicates the importance that is placed on English in the public schools. How much more necessary is it in our schools for the deaf?

In conclusion, I may say that our ultimate aims are no different from those of the public school. Our approach may vary, but our object is to develop an integrated personality in our pupils that will fit them into society.

Dr. GRUVER: The discussion will be continued by Mrs. Poore.

Mrs. POORE: I wish to present, in a nutshell, what I think our product should be. I think we should turn out a deaf citizenship physically strong, and I believe we have better opportunities than the general public schools have for doing that, because we have our pupils with us morning, noon and night, and I think in a great many instances can care for them and promote this physical welfare better than the public can. They should be, of course, morally straight. They should be mentally awake and informed on general subjects, at least. And they should be equipped to earn a livelihood. Now, these are aims. I am not saying that we accomplish them.

I know we don't pay enough attention to what we are accomplishing with the individual pupil, and I think that our aims must vary with the individual, as we can't just lump them in a group and say: "Our aims in this group are so and so, and this one is something else."

Fortunately, we were asked to set out our ultimate aims and not to say how to reach them. I think every paper on the program, perhaps, really pertains to this subject in some way.

Mr. HARRIS: I would say that our ultimate aim should be the providing of such conditions, such experiences, at the schools as would make all of our pupils live a life of greatest service to the community, of greatest enjoyment to themselves and of greatest increase of their knowledge. I think we should keep well in mind every day of our lives in dealing with this problem that education really takes the average normal child and makes that child actualize in his life his potentialities, what he can be. We should keep well in mind the three great elements of his nature: his feeling and his intellect and his will—his capacity to feel, his capacity to know, his capacity to do—and train him to know as much as possible, to do as much as possible, and to enjoy as much as possible of his life. We should keep those three things well in mind and see to it, for instance, that our pupils are furnished experiences that add to their enjoyment and give them capacity to act for the enjoyment of others.

The ultimate aim of the school ought to be to provide the pupil with such training in his social life, with such training in his health, that he actualizes to the utmost all that he is capable of becoming.

Dr. JONES: Mr. Chairman, apropos to this subject and other subjects we have had, I have three observations to make:

First, I don't want anybody to feel that I am an insurgent. I love all of you and we shall find many opportunities to be happy, but I shall just have to be a little honest with myself and go home feeling that I haven't accepted things that I knew needed attention without saying something.

I want to go back to Mr. Fusfeld's excellent paper this morning and protest, as gently as I can but as surely, that the boy who wrote the program of his work in a school for the deaf was paying the school a great compliment, even though he tried to be humorous and even sarcastic. The lessons he learned from washing his neck and

ears and taking his bath when he ought to take it, and dressing and changing his underclothes when he should, will go with him through life and make character. This routine has to be so in a school for the deaf. If the lockers were left open and every fellow could go and get his clothes when he pleased, and put them on when he pleased, and take a bath when he pleased, and wash himself when he pleased, the school would be in public disrepute shortly.

As far as thinking is concerned, I read in one of the school papers a story that a little boy wrote home: "Johnny was sent home because he lost his think. I still have my think." That shows that in the schools for the deaf the word "think" is well known.

The other thing I want to call attention to, in all good nature, was the two letters that Dr. Hall read, indicating that the schools are not teaching any language, or that pupils are passing through the examinations by some means that are not altogether honorable, and entering college. The important thing is that this young man went to college with great ambition and great hope. He wanted to learn language. He admitted that he was weak in language, and he had high aspirations and he hoped the college would do for him what he had been unable to do for himself.

There was the opportunity for the college. Who wouldn't rush headlong after a boy like that, to help straighten him up and make something out of him? We should never throw out a boy like that.

I have letters from college graduates—and you have, too, every one that has been in the work very long—who write just as ridiculous language as that. And I don't blame the college. Some people have no language sense. Some hearing people have no language sense and never can and never will learn language. You can't blame anybody; it is just a condition that nature gave them, and it can't be helped.

The third thing I want to speak of is this constant cry coming up discrediting the industrial work in the schools for the deaf in this country. My good friend, our worthy acting president, said that we are using the vintage of 1890 in industrial work, and possibly the vintage of 1875. Whose fault is it?

Dr. GRUVER: Pardon me, Dr. Jones, "equipment."

Dr. JONES: He has been on the job for many years. That is a great reflection on himself.

Dr. GRUVER: "Equipment," please.

Dr. JONES: I have been on the job for thirty-four years. That is a great reflection on me, and any person here who has been in this work any number of years and has done nothing to improve the conditions of '75 and '90 ought to be ashamed of himself and he should find somebody to put in charge of the shopwork who could make it go.

I know a woman who is insane, and in a hospital because she is condemning herself, and I don't want any of the superintendents of the schools for the deaf to go insane condemning themselves. I know from experience and investigation that the schools for the hearing do not touch us in industrial work, on the average. They don't give the time to it. They don't have the material. They don't get the results. They haven't the teaching force. They haven't the interest, and they don't do the work that we do. I investigated this subject a little over a year ago. A principal in a city school told me that they gave two periods of 45 minutes each a week. He sent me where I could see their best training. The bell rang in a few minutes and everybody went out. The teacher said that they were out of material and had no work. There was no evidence of work done.

That is in one of the leading cities in the state, and yet our friends come here condemning themselves and saying that the public schools by giving 45 minutes twice a week do more and better industrial training than do the schools for the deaf by giving from two to two hours and

a half a day for five or six days in the week. Now, isn't that near insanity?

If our work is not good enough, let us do it better and still better.

Mr. SKYBERG: What we have been working at is this: We are striving to develop a philosophy of education, so far as it concerns ourselves, are we not? We have had brought to us this morning the formal practice which enters into the educational work that we have to do, the curricula. We probably will later on have brought to our attention those things which are not in the curricula, the informal practice, if you please, probably playing more strongly on the emotional life of our children than any other factor that we can put before the child in the schoolroom.

We have had mentioned the fact that the child should be prepared for the actualities of life. In other words, we must bring out of the inner life of the child that portion of him which must be developed to meet the objective world in which we live. That has been touched upon today and also last night. Now, if we can in some way or other formulate a little philosophy of education which will guide us in what we have to do here, I for one would be very thankful—an expression which would put the philosophy of our education of the deaf plainly before us in black and white, in a sentence or a paragraph.

Dr. GRUVER: The next topic is "Ethics in Our Profession," and I shall ask Mr. BJORLEE to open the discussion.

Mr. BJORLEE: I am going to take the privilege of stating now a few words by way of discussion, preliminary to the reading of my paper, relative to some of the topics considered this morning.

I believe that if we look into the future of the profession of teaching the deaf, we will have to feel a little bit pessimistic as to the outlook. The skies are not so clear

as they might be. I attended a meeting called in Baltimore to consider the vocational training in the high schools, and I was perfectly amazed to realize how far they have gone. We were speaking to-day of putting in field workers. The high schools of to-day already have their field workers.

The question was brought up here as to the advisability of teaching the use of the comptometer and other machines that are being employed to facilitate work in offices. An expert in Baltimore made the statement that, "We have five or six calls a year for young people who do this kind of work. We have about 100 in the high schools who want to work at these machines, so we are going to limit the machines to about 10 operators, in order that we may be able to fill every vacancy. Now, they are doing the same thing with linotype work, and I want to ask you in all seriousness, Where will our field man be when, in presenting his employees, he is confronted with the competition of the best and the most skilled high school boys who have also perfected themselves in linotype work?

It seems to me there is one thought and one ray of light in the whole thing from which we may derive some comfort. A survey of our Baltimore boys shows that they are engaged in about 57 different lines of work. In none of these cases did we in our school give very much of suggestion as to where to go, and in one way or another they have simply worked themselves into these various positions. But there is government aid being given to the high schools. I made an inquiry to see whether we could get a little of that extra money, and I found that we are barred because we are a state institution and not a public school. In other words, we were a lap ahead not more than ten years back; now we are already one lap behind.

Mr. POPE: You have to have three hours' industrial work, and then a certain percentage of your subjects have to be along industrial lines, or you can't get money from that source.

Mr. BJORLEE: Now, that brings me to the question of ethics. It seems to me when we, as workers with the deaf, are all of us confronted with this tremendous competition on the outside, it should be clear to us that we at least ought to use oil enough on the machinery of our organization so that there is no friction from within. One does not like to deal with the subject of ethics in a gathering of this kind, but if you will consider it from the kindly angle, and that the suggestions here made are done so with the hope that we may do something to arouse a more friendly and a more united feeling among the workers of our own profession, perhaps it will justify its position on this program.

Mr. BJORLEE here read his paper on

ETHICS IN OUR PROFESSION

Let us consider for a moment the propriety of using the term ethics in connection with the following presentation. According to the standard dictionary, ethics is defined as a science of human duty, or, the basic principles of right action. I know of but one basic principle of right action, and that is the Golden Rule. Assuming, then, that we are all familiar with the Golden Rule, and further assuming that as heads of schools for the deaf we should be above reproach so far as intentionally violating the mandates of the Golden Rule is concerned, it might seem that any further discussion would be superfluous.

We are, however, living in an age when codes of ethics are being formulated for every type of trade or profession. Every city of any size has one or more service clubs comprising representative business and professional men of all vocations. These clubs have elaborate codes of ethics. One such club is striving to impress upon its members the importance of going out into their respective fields of work and either subscribing to some code already established, or assisting in the formulating of such a code for that particular vocation.

It might be well to think of the term Ethics rather in the light of business practices. This would eliminate the objectionable feature that might attach itself to the discussion of ethics in the minds of some of our members.

I have read a number of these codes and am somewhat familiar with one in particular. Several years ago I spent some time in a real estate office in a mid-west city, which was at that time enjoying a real estate boom. Men dealing in farm land at that time were called real estate agents, and between firms there seemed to be no other law than that of the survival of the fittest. There was no limit as to the commission charged for the sale of land. A prospective purchaser inquiring for a certain real estate office might be given free transportation from the station to the office of a competitor, never to arrive at the intended destination. There was no such thing as respecting the rights of others in the matter of restricted territory. These conditions have changed. Men in the same community who are members of local real estate boards, affiliated with the national association, now term themselves realtors. There is a gentleman's agreement as to what constitutes a reasonable commission; and there is likewise an understanding as to the sharing of commissions where one agent sells land that might well be characterized as being in the territory of a competitor. The realtors have, through a rigid observance of the regulations of their code of ethics, elevated their entire profession to a position where it is highly honored and respected, and its usefulness to the community universally recognized.

While competition as the life of trade was the slogan of business men, the standard of practices was frequently very low. To-day we are told that coöperation is the life of trade, and men who were scarcely on speaking terms with one another are now banding themselves together for what they term to be the good of the community.

Have we as superintendents and principals of schools for the deaf joined hands in a spirit of coöperation, or is

there still some work to be done, thereby eliminating friction, to the end that as our president, Mr. Goodwin, so happily stated in a recent letter: "I hope the deaf in years to come will be much better off in life for this Conference"?

In the interest of harmony as between schools and better understanding on the part of the deaf and the hearing public, I submit the following, which has been subdivided into three general heads:

First. Sanctity of a Contract.

For obvious reasons I am not approaching this subject from the standpoint of the teacher. That would be a subject for the convention or the association. If a teacher breaks her contract during the year to leave the profession, that is a matter which involves but one teacher and one superintendent. There may be a number of reasons why a teacher might feel obliged to discontinue her work, and the superintendent would probably be most willing to yield to any reasonable request. If, however, during the year a teacher goes from one school for the deaf to another, the transaction involves two superintendents.

Should a teacher from one school be invited to join the staff of another school without the superintendent by whom she is employed being consulted, when the transfer involves the breaking of a contract? Having expressed your views on this subject and assuming the reply to be in the negative, we shall proceed to the second question.

Is it reasonable for a superintendent to assume that, with his staff for the coming year filled in June, he may safely depart for a vacation without fear that some of the teachers will be engaged during his absence to teach elsewhere? At the present time it is a common practice for teachers to accept positions during the months of March and April. Might we not then add the month of May and draw a line of demarcation beginning with June 1st? To illustrate: Let the first question asked of a teacher who is approached subsequent to June 1st be—Have you

promised your services for next year? A reply in the affirmative should be sufficient to break off further negotiations for that term.

Such an arrangement should not prove detrimental to the teacher, for if material advancement such as promotion from the ranks to departmental head is involved, the superintendent holding first claim ought not stand in the way of a teacher's materially advancing her standing and usefulness in the profession.

Why blame a teacher for violating a contract when a superintendent in whom she has absolute confidence has led her to believe that such is the general practice within our profession? A contract cannot be regarded as merely a "scrap of paper." Assume, for instance, that a superintendent after employing a teacher should dismiss that teacher so late in the season that it would be impossible for her to secure a position. Admitting that the change might bring a more experienced or more valuable teacher to the staff, no one could justify such an act. A contract, as a solemn obligation, must be binding upon teacher and superintendent alike.

Second. Minimum Normal Course Requirements.

We are not here dealing so much in terms of ethics as in terms of what should constitute a standard below which no teacher should be recommended as qualified for the work. We are familiar with the standards as laid down by the schools that have recognized normal training classes. I am now speaking of schools where high school, or preferably normal school, graduates are occasionally permitted to take a course of training. At the Maryland School we give such courses on alternate years. Our requirements are as follows: A prescribed course of training with daily observation periods and a certain amount of practice teaching will enable the teacher, who devotes her entire time to the work, to receive a certificate at the end of the year. This does not, however, imply that the teacher is qualified to teach a class of deaf children with-

out special coaching and supervision by a thoroughly competent head teacher. In other words, a teacher who has completed one full year of training must come back to us for another year, during which time she receives a proportionately larger amount of the head teacher's time than does the average member of the staff. If at the end of her second year the teacher appears to be qualified for the work, I should not then hesitate to recommend her for a position.

By way of contrast, let me read to you a letter addressed to me as the secretary of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf. This letter was written by a teacher who had received a certificate following a period of six weeks' training:

August 22, 1926.

IGNATIUS BJORLEE,
Secretary, Association Deaf Teachers.
DEAR SIR:

I am a graduate of the 1926 training class for teachers at the ———— State School for the Deaf, and I wish to secure a position as teacher.

I will consider a position anywhere in the United States and will be grateful to you if you will kindly list my name. I will appreciate any assistance you give me in getting a position.

Very truly yours,
(Signed) ————————

And I wish to point out that I am addressed in this letter as Secretary, Association Deaf Teachers.

The above was one of several similar letters received. Some of the names were submitted by me to superintendents who had inquired concerning teachers, because I had no way of determining from the letters the limited amount of training the young ladies had had.

After the return of the pupils in September, I found the need of employing an additional teacher. All experienced teachers previously listed being then under contract, I made inquiry as to the qualifications of the young ladies in question. The superintendent explained the nature of the six weeks' course, adding that he did not consider the young ladies qualified to take regular positions.

We then offered the writer of the letter a position with the understanding that so long as she was not thoroughly trained and that we should have to continue giving her instruction, we could not for the first year give her full pay, but would gradually increase the salary during the course of the year. This offer was first accepted, only to be declined a few days later. A similar offer was made to another member of the same class, who also declined. It was evident from their letters that both young ladies had expected full salaries and regular teaching positions.

In all sincerity let us inquire as to the purpose of these short courses. It is a fact that many teachers similarly trained slipped into the work during the years of the World War and immediately following that period. Should not a standard for normal course certificates be determined upon? Can we not take some action at this Conference by selecting a committee to formulate such a standard and devise means of issuing such certificates?

Third. NOMENCLATURE.

It seems to me that in our profession we are enveloped by a fog of inadequate and obsolete names or phrases on which some committee might do well to work out a system of standardization. For a long time the words *oral, combined* and *manual* were reasonably accurate terms. Not so any more. We find, for instance, in the ANNALS that instead of three methods of instruction, or, correctly speaking, with the *Rochester Method,* four, we now have to add the *oral and manual alphabet methods; aural, oral manual;* and the *dual methods,* making a total of seven methods.

It is becoming highly technical properly to classify a school with these fine distinctions drawn. Be that as it may, so long as we all understand one another this is more or less immaterial, but when a teacher is, for instance, advised not to go to a combined school because of its manual tendencies, and it so happens that she hails from a school that has proportionately more non-speech

pupils than does the particular combined school in question, real harm so far as congenial relationship between schools is clearly discernable. If the term "combined school" conveys the impression that speech, finger spelling and signs are used interchangeably in the classroom of such a school, then I am ready to admit that the name "combined" is obsolete. My definition of a combined school as I know it in the case of the Maryland School, is a system where each of the various methods of communication is relegated to its proper place. Out of seventeen classes, we have but one manual class, one special class in which no restriction as to method is made, and one class, the high class, where speech and finger spelling are employed. I naturally use this reference to the Maryland School because of first-hand information, and furthermore because I believe this to be in keeping with the method now employed in a majority of our combined schools. Teachers in such combined schools are doing *pure oral work.* Many of them do not know a conventional sign. Teachers from combined schools are being drawn upon for positions as heads of departments in pure oral schools. The statement then becomes exceedingly mischievous when a teacher with so-called pure oral training is invited to remain away from a combined school. Some of the best teachers in oral schools to-day took their training and received all their experience in combined schools. This can in no sense be interpreted as a plea for one method in preference to any other method. To be a competent judge one must be thoroughly conversant with each of the several methods. Rapid changes in methods of education have marked the past decade and the end is not yet at hand. For the advocate of any method to infer that the last word on educating the deaf has been uttered, and that we must now force every school to adapt itself to a single mold, is not in keeping with the present age of surveys, research and investigation. We may well respect the opinions of others while reserving the right to

be governed by facts. I believe we have every right to infer that among those who differ with us in our views, are educators of equal experience and native ability who are devoting their best thought and energy toward the advancement of the education of the deaf.

Statements are frequently made in certain quarters that state schools do not teach speech. Some who should know better are guilty of this unethical line of striving to belittle the efforts of others, for selfish motives. Others can frequently be caught up in their writings and speeches with misstatements, which may charitably be attributed to their ignorance of existing conditions. Bear in mind that we are now discussing ethics, and that there is no clause in the code, of the average trades guild, stronger than the one which condemns the misrepresenting of the quality of the wares handled by a competitor.

A pamphlet entitled Schools for the Deaf, Bulletin 1928, Number 8, has recently been issued by the Bureau of Education, Department of the Interior. Under schools preparing teachers of the deaf are enumerated the following: Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C.; Clarke School for the Deaf, Northampton, Mass.; Central Institute for the Deaf, St. Louis, Mo.; School for the Deaf, 904 Lexington Ave., New York City; and School for the Deaf, Morganton, N. C. Concluding the paragraph is the following statement: "With the exception of Gallaudet, these schools use oral methods." This is just one of many illustrations which show how misleading are statements printed and circulated throughout the country. Educators who had some part in the drafting of this bulletin should have been sufficiently informed to know that Kendall School, where Gallaudet normals secure their training, *uses* the oral method in the instruction of its pupils and in the training of normals. Otherwise, how could a teacher be so trained at Gallaudet College as to be chosen the head of one of the leading pure oral private schools of our country, and still be a product both as to training

and experience of the normal class in a school which does not use the oral method? In the narrow sense of the term, "oral method" excludes all other methods, but the above-quoted statement, being merely an explanatory phrase, clearly befogs the situation rather than clarifies it in the minds of those not familiar with our terminology.

Finally, is anything being done toward eradicating the erroneous titles being used to designate our schools? When the voice of a salesman calls us from the hotel asking if this is the "Deaf and Dumb Asylum" we naturally experience a feeling of resentment. We must not, however, be too harsh in our judgment of the interrogator. If he is a good salesman he knows that a correct approach may mean dollars to his credit. We may therefore infer that he has used the name as it was given to him by the firm. Four years ago we put on a campaign toward correcting the addresses on all forms of communications received, whether first, second, or third class mail. We had a form letter printed calling attention to the harm being done to the deaf by the use of such terms as "home" or "asylum" when applied to our school. Such letter was inserted with the envelope or wrapper taken from the incorrectly addressed piece of mail and returned to the sender. The result was that in less than one year practically all of our mail came addressed to the Maryland State School for the Deaf. Since the opening of school this fall we have not detected a single instance of an objectionably addressed parcel of mail.

Our children are already handicapped and this handicap is augmented by the erroneous conceptions concerning the deaf which are fostered by the popular use of incorrect titles for our schools. In the large majority of cases the word "dumb" carries with it the idea of mental, not physical, deficiency. "Home" implies charity. "Asylum" is immediately coupled with the insane.

In recent years a number of schools have been successful in securing transfers from departments of charity

or penal institutions, to the department of education of their respective states. Let us join hands in a concerted effort to further convince the public that our schools are educational institutions in every sense of the word.

Dr. GRUVER: The discussion will be continued by Mr. A. C. MANNING, with a paper also on

ETHICS IN OUR PROFESSION

When on my way to the Conference I saw a copy of the program and found myself assigned to the discussion of this topic, I was at sea as to just what points I was expected to discuss.

An outline as follows presented itself to me:

I. The Superintendent:
   1. His relations to other superintendents and other schools.
   2. His relations to his employees.
   3. His relations to his pupils.

II. The Teacher:
   1. Her relations to her superintendent.
   2. Her relations to her co-laborers.
   3. Her relations to her pupils.

III. The School group.

I. As no stream can rise above its source, every superintendent should be a paragon of excellence, a model in every particular. How far short of this ideal we as superintendents fall, each one of us knows.

Every one of us can and should be the soul of honor in his dealings with his professional associates. Perhaps the greatest temptation to deviate from the path of honesty and fairness lies in the methods of securing teachers and officers for the school, as each of us wants only the best.

No superintendent can honestly induce a teacher or an officer in another school to break a contract. This has been done at conventions and by correspondence. It is most gratifying that it seldom happens. Personally I have no knowledge of recent instances of this sort of thing. In recent years I have had letters from superintendents of schools asking me if I were willing that they

approach certain of my teachers relative to leaving my school. This I consider is the only honorable policy for superintendents to pursue in their relations with one another when a teacher or officer under contract in another school is wanted. This year I approached two superintendents upon this subject relative to teachers who had previously applied for positions with me. One of them had made application to me twice. She is with me now. The other teacher considered the offer but did not accept, remaining where she was. My offer, no doubt, brought to her a salary more attractive than I could offer her. This she deserved.

This summer I needed a household officer. I made an offer to a woman who, I was informed, was not going to return to the position she held last year. She replied that she had accepted reappointment. Had I known this, I should not have approached her upon the subject. Last term a superintendent visited me. Later he lost his matron and asked me to help him secure the services of one of my most valuable workers whom he had met on the occasion of his visit. He pursued the only honorable policy and the only honorable thing I could do was to try to help him.

The simple narration of these cases serves to illustrate my conception of our duty toward one another and toward our teachers and officers. Furthermore, I consider it only fair that we as superintendents should strive to secure for our employees as nearly as possible all they earn. The laborer has always been worthy of his hire. In schools for the deaf, laborers have seldom received their due. The day should be gone when a superintendent says, in employing a teacher or officer, "How little will you come for?" He should bestir himself and secure appropriations commensurate with the service he expects his helpers to render the pupils for whom the school exists.

And here we come to the heart of our greatest obliga-

tion: The imperative demand that we keep faith with our pupils. In our own relations with our pupils our integrity must be above question. A story will illustrate my point. One of my pupils, a fourteen-year-old girl, had to undergo an operation for the relief of pleurisy, having had pneumonia. The surgeon gave her a local anaesthetic. A second operation was found necessary. When I explained the situation to the girl, she begged that she be etherized. She insisted until I saw it was a serious matter with her. I asked the surgeon. He hesitated but at last acquiesced. I had not been present at the first operation. The child begged that I accompany her the second time. This I did and while preparations were being made for the operation, she recognized the same preparations as for the former operation. She appealed to me repeatedly to know if she would be given a general anaesthetic. I assured her that such was the case for the surgeon had said so. Finally she saw she was to have a local anaesthetic. She broke into screams and, turning to me, said, "You lie! You lie!" whereupon I asked the nurse if she did not intend to etherize the child. "No," she replied. I reminded the surgeon of his promise and told him I could not afford to have the child lose faith in me.

Not only must our own standard of conduct be exemplary. Our children have the right to expect us to employ as their teachers and officers only those men and women whose lives may be taken as examples of rectitude.

II. In no profession is there greater need for a high standard of ethics than in the teaching profession. Again a stream cannot rise higher than its source. Teachers cannot inculcate in the hearts of children principles which they do not practise.

In the temptation to jump contracts, teachers face, perhaps, their sorest temptation to dishonesty. Their salaries are small. Much is required of them. An opportunity to leave at an increase in salary comes through a friend in another school after a contract is signed. The school that

gets her is unfortunate in both its superintendent and its unfairly acquired teacher, who can not teach honesty. Of the two I consider the superintendent the more dishonorable.

There are those who condone the crime of breaking a contract to teach in order to marry. This policy seems to me most unethical when it handicaps the work of a school, coming at a time when there are no capable teachers available. My contention is that no matter how insistently matrimony is urged upon her, a teacher should postpone it until the expiration of her contract.

Let me emphasize one point by stating it negatively. One of the greatest causes of unhappiness in any school for the deaf is the unethical inclination to clannishness on the part of a certain type of teacher and its allied unchristian tendency to gossip. Freedom from clannishness and gossip gives a teacher a high rating as a member of a school family. It also makes possible her ability as a leader in that vastly important service of saving her pupils from habits of clannishness and gossip, two of the most insidious enemies to the happiness of deaf children.

Again we arrive at the problem of the child. Absolute honesty in all her relations to her children is essential in the ethical standards of a teacher. For instance, undue zeal and interest on the part of an indolent teacher the instant her principal appears unexpectedly at the classroom door kills that teacher's influence for good with her pupils.

III. Perhaps in nothing is the welfare of a school for deaf children more definitely promoted than by cordiality and fellowship existing throughout the organization. To emphasize this fact I would mention the danger of snobbishness as being a most sinister influence in a school. Where teachers consider themselves better than supervisors and where supervisors feel their superiority to servants, a happy spirit cannot exist.

I hope these few remarks in which I have touched upon only a few of the multitudinous phases of the desirable ethical standards in our profession may provoke profitable discussion.

Mr. HARRIS: Would we not be justified in adopting a resolution here obligating ourselves to inquire of every applicant for a teacher's place with us: "Are you under any contract for your services next year?", and admit her to our official family only on condition that she has not broken her contract with another superintendent. And then we ought ourselves not to employ, without the consent of the superintendent with whom that contract was made, this teacher applying to us. It seems to me that the matter is in our hands. The Georgia School has been badly treated often by teachers who come into our employ, who sometimes leave our official family without even mentioning the subject to me. I think that is as unethical as it can be, and it is as ill advised as it can be for the profession. I feel the Committee on Resolutions should take this matter under advisement for its report to this Conference.

Dr. COUGHLIN: The Ontario School has suffered very considerably as Mr. Harris says his school has. In our school we take in normal trained public school teachers, and we pay them a salary equal to what they could get in the public schools from the first. We put them in charge of classes. Our training course is three years. We are paying them beyond what they are worth for the first two or three years, but we are training them for ourselves and expect them to stay with us; otherwise we would not take them in at all. We have found that after they have obtained their training and their diploma, they have simply got up and gone over to some other school, and that somebody was engaging them without asking us any questions about it at all. For that reason we have to resort to holding back a portion of their salary for the first three years, paying it back to them

in the fourth, fifth and sixth years, provided they remain, to counteract that procedure.

Mrs. PITTENGER: I do not think that what I have to say will be very popular, but I have been a teacher for 32 years, and it seems to me that if I could get a better salary somewhere than I can get in Indiana, that I could serve the children of another state just as well, and I would feel it very unfair in the superintendent if he would not relieve me. Now, I believe that the teachers in the school that take their training give their finest service to the school. Their productive years are short; they must save for the future, or get married, and it seems to me that this is hardly fair to the teacher. I am just uttering my protest against this sort of thing. If the superintendents are willing to agree that they should not consider an advancement during the year, I believe the rank and file of the teachers would be willing to agree, but it doesn't seem to be equally fair.

Mr. MCMANAWAY next read a paper on

RECENT EDUCATIONAL ADVANCEMENTS AND OUR REACTIONS TO THEM

It is with very sincere trepidation that I approach the discussion of the topic assigned, for the time available for the preparation was all too brief and my sense of the breadth of the subject has increased with every hour spent in preparation. If the scope of the topic assigned is any indication of the estimate placed upon my own ability by the chairman of the Program Committee, I feel flattered indeed. For if the subject were to be adequately treated, it would be necessary for the speaker to be quite thoroughly informed on all modern movements in the general field of education and equally conversant with the field of the education of the deaf, and possessed also with that type of imagination and ability which would enable him to judge aright just how the methods

and procedures in one field might be applied in the other.

However, I hope that in the time allotted I may be able to treat briefly a few points that may be of interest and of practical value to the members of this Conference.

The most impressive characteristic of the field of general education is that educational theories and practices seem to be in a state of flux, while quite in contrast, the theories and practices in the field of the education of the deaf seem relatively static if not crystalline. While we are largely concerned with improving this method, or further developing that one, the workers in the general field of education are challenging every procedure and every accepted practice to determine whether it has survival value and whether its continued use can be justified by reason or results. Unless one has kept in touch with these developments, it is quite difficult to realize the extent to which every classroom procedure, every principle of discipline, every detail of school organization, and every individual part of the curriculum are being put to test with the fundamental question of continuance or discontinuance, modification or reorganization. And the changes which are being introduced are as radical in the field of education as the Russian experiment is radical in the field of government.

The changes which are taking place can all be traced, I believe, to the gradual recognition, some twenty years ago, that while the schools were organized and conducted on the assumption that most children were average in ability and characteristics, as a matter of fact "the average child" does not exist at all; that all children are different and that differences in any particular ability or trait are quite considerable; that these differences are in kind as well as in degree.

In order to determine the kind and the degree of differences, an epidemic of testing swept the country—

testing intelligence, testing every particular ability that seemed significant in school procedure.

When attention had been directed to these differences, and efforts were made to adjust the program of the schools to fit the individual needs as discovered, educational thinkers awoke to the intrinsic value of individuality in children, and the potential value to the nation and the world at large if individuality could be developed to its maximum possibilities.

The effort to give scope to the development of personality is responsible for the radical changes now in progress in education. May we note a few of the changes which have resulted?

I. It has affected the organization of the schools.

The old grade system of organization worked on the assumption that from 20 to 40 children could be found of about equal ability; all were given the same assignments and the same tests and examinations and all were led to expect promotion from year to year until graduation. As a matter of fact the system did not work out in practice, for many dropped out and few graduated. The failure was attributed to the pupil.

To-day we find ability groupings, differentiated assignments of lessons, differentiated standards of attainment; some are expected to complete the work of the elementary school in six years, some in seven, or eight years.

II. It has affected classroom procedure.

Formerly the teachers "taught the lesson", being responsible for the conduct and direction of the recitation, for the discipline of the classroom, which by common consent was autocratic in type, and for the amount of work which each pupil performed in a day or in the course of a session.

To-day we find the socialized recitation or some modification of it, in which emphasis is laid upon the initiative of the pupil, and a degree of pupil responsibility is developed impossible under the old system; or we have the

Dalton plan which permits a pupil to work individually or coöperatively with other pupils, getting such help from the teacher as he may need, covering the ground in a particular subject as rapidly as his abilities permit, being held responsible for results only. Emphasis is laid upon activities, substituting life experience for verbal memory.

We find the project method of assignment or the broader problem method, which is designed to develop in the pupil the ability to work out on his own responsibility a project or problem, chosen in line with a known interest, and adapted to his ability, and containing elements of definite educational value.

III. It has affected very particularly the curricula of the schools.

Five years ago the Department of Superintendence of the N. E. A. began a study of the curriculum and set up committees to carry on the work.

In 1924 a yearbook was published, "The Elementary School Curriculum", containing:

A statement of general aims and objectives;

A survey of curriculum practice, and outlining a proposed coöperative effort in curriculum revision.

In 1925 the third yearbook was pulished, "Research in Constructing the Elementary School Curriculum." A total of 75 curricular specialists assisted in its preparation. It contains 150 studies in eleven of the *subject* fields, and also a summary of 500 reading investigations.

In 1926 the fourth yearbok was published, "The Nation at Work on the Public School Curriculum." In this are reported some of the forward looking work done in the field of curriculum building, and case studies of curriculum revision programs of particular cities. This report stated fundamental principles involved, and contained reports of eleven national subject committees together with summaries of investigations.

In 1927 was issued the fifth yearbook, "The Junior

High School Curriculum." This contains a study of 300 school systems interested in junior high school curriculum revision and the reports of 12 national subject committees. The Department of Superintendence and the Research Division of the N. E. A. coöperated. One hundred nineteen research studies are reviewed in this volume.

In these yearbooks one finds the results of the work during five years of an organization of nearly 4,000 of the most progressive school executives of this country. Such studies should certainly be significant to the members of this Conference, and any conclusions arrived at deserve respectful consideration. May I quote at random from some of these reports in an effort to give you something of the spirit pervading the reports and perhaps some of the tentative conclusions reached?

The public school curriculum has a large share in determining the nation's present and future progress. Through its public schools, America is endeavoring to pass on to its youth all that has been found best in the past: the knowledge, habits, skills, attitudes and ideals most useful to individual and national life at present; and in addition, it attempts to supply youth with the necessary tools, understanding, foresight, and incentive for the future advancement of its people. Knowledge and skill, disseminated among the masses of the people, according to a leading economist, constitute a nation's greatest wealth. The habits of a people determine the degree of faith that other nations accord it; and the idealism of its citizens is a nation's salvation. Since the public school is designed to disseminate knowledge, develop right habits, and implant proper ideals, it may rightly be termed the life insurance of civilization.

The public school curriculum determines what boys and girls are taught in school. With the exception of the personality of the teacher, no other educational factor equals it in importance. The elementary school curriculum lays the foundation of every child's education.

And further

It is a more vital factor in the development of national life to-day than ever before. In pioneer days, ordinary living at home and in the community, directed by insistent family needs, provided a fairly adequate preparation for life. Then the task of the American public school was mainly to supplement the life of the home, church, and community by adding the three R's. As time went on, the public school was called upon to supply more and more formal education. Many new courses were added to the traditional subjects. Unfortunately, there was often lack of synthesis of the whole, since additions and modifications were made without plan or system; and the result in many instances is "the

amorphous product of generations of tinkering.'' Unless school practice is abreast or ahead of the time, it cannot be a directive power. There has been too much of a tendency for convention and tradition to determine curricula, rather than practical, present-day life demands. An active principle which is now coming to be recognized in the selection of content is that of utility in a broad sense. Will the inclusion of a particular topic or subject increase the effectiveness of the individual? Will it influence life for good? Will it build character? To-day we are using a pragmatic philosophy.

Pruning out the deadwood, selecting minimum essentials from total possible content, adding supplementary material—tinkering with the curriculum—will no longer answer the need. A complete revision is demanded by both educators and laymen. Both groups demand a new curriculum, expressive of the changed conditions of modern civilization and reshaped in the light of our better understanding of child life and the learning processes.

Also

The educator sees the need of curriculum revision from two angles: (1) the expansion of the field of knowledge, and the need for a discriminating selection of what is best suited to meet present social demands; and (2) provision for character building, including the development of broad interests, liberal views, and the establishment of right social and ethical attitudes. The limited time that the average child spends in school in contrast to the vast amount of knowledge which one might acquire, the complexity of modern life with its varied demands, and the necessity of developing individual talents are conditions which lead educators not only to restudy and analyze the aims and objectives of education, but also to demand a complete revision of the curriculum to express the new conceptions of education. The educator is seeking as the major products of his enterprise strong character and right conduct, built not on precept, but fashioned through years of right thinking during lesson hours and properly controlled behavior in school activities. Teachers not only want their pupils to meet the standard tests in academic achievement but, what is more important, to meet successfully the tests of life, even to the point of temptation. For this reason, although teachers may rightly expect that character development will be an important by-product of all good instruction, they have definitely in mind the moral qualities which they wish to develop in their pupils, such as: honesty, industry, self-control, courtesy, unselfishness, service, appreciation of beauty, open-mindedness, coöperation, responsibility, sympathy, desire for improvement, adaptability, courage, initiative, thoroughness, self-judgment, thrift, faith in mankind, and reverence. Every true teacher hopes to develop these qualities through life situations as they arise.

When the educator fully comprehends that the objectives which the school must serve to-day are health, training for a vocation, citizenship, worthy home membership, the profitable use of leisure, and ethical character, he keenly feels the need of a thorough revision of the present public school curriculum.

The teacher strives to have his pupils spell more correctly the words in common use, use the arithmetical processes necessary in modern life with more speed and accuracy, and read more and with

greater rapidity and comprehension. In addition, the teacher would have his pupils appreciate the rights of others, and respect the law; in other words, he would have him establish a proper relationship between himself and society.

And

Curriculum making is becoming a specialized, technical task, which requires: (1) the study of social needs, including those peculiar to a local community, (2) analyses of the abilities and interests of growing children, (3) experimental study of the learning process, and (4) an understanding of the local school system, the temper and capacity of its teachers and administrators; in other words, what can be expected of them in helping in the development and putting into effect of a new course of study at a given time. One curriculum specialist has wisely said: "To make a radical selection and reorganization of the best in a civilization is not something that can be lightly undertaken or easily accomplished. Conferences and the pronouncements of those in official positions are quite inadequate. Two methods are needed in curriculum making: (1) the subjective method of expert teaching opinion, and (2) the objective method of expert analysis of social and psychological needs." Both processes should work together.

A strictly uniform American curriculum for the elementary schools is hardly possible, because of the great variations in social, industrial, and economic conditions. Furthermore, it may not be desirable, because of our democratic ideal of recognizing local needs and conditions and of considering individual differences of children. There are three elements in every course of study: (1) the general core that meets nation-wide requirements; (2) the part that has to do with the local community, which may even vary for different communities in the same city; and (3) adjustments for individual children and varying groups of pupils.

Further

The Trend of the Curriculum.—The clear trend of public education, which long has been academic, and except for matters of literacy, little conscious of specific human needs, is toward preparing men and women to perform the actual functions of life. Through activity-analysis, it is dicovering specifically what those functions are. It is adding to the curriculum provisions for functions hitherto not prepared for. It is eliminating matters merely academic and non-functional, useless survivals from earlier practices developed through mistake, and whatever is alien to the actual substance, on a proper level, of man's life.

Our schools have trained for literacy, and in that they have succeeded—for all who have attended and worked. But in matters of citizenship we are yet, figuratively speaking, mostly a nation of unschooled, unpractised civic illiterates, with a fragmentary training picked up mostly through incidental contacts and desultory reading. There has been much talk of training for citizenship, but the curriculum is not yet greatly affected. The present trend is toward developing an adequate program. What this should be, no man yet knows. How much time it will take in years or in hours, no one knows. Not till it is worked out, can we know.

In ability to perform health functions, our people are somewhat better off, but their ideas for the most part have been obtained, and their practices formed, outside of schools. The schools have tried to do something on the elementary level where the children are too immature to do much, and have neglected it upon the secondary level where the students are sufficiently mature. The trend is toward finding adult needs and developing a sound program on high-school level.

In the use of leisure time by our people, there is evidence in support of the contention, urged by some, that we are moving toward the rocks. Undoubtedly, the social undertow is strong, and the usual academic program certainly does little to prevent. The curriculum of public education does not yet show any clear trend toward consciously preparing our growing men and women for healthful and beneficent uses of their spare time. There are reasons to think that a program will emerge quickly when the need is professionally recognized.

We are discovering the urgent need of training for still other types of hitherto neglected functions: Training for the subjective activities of one's religion; for parental activities; for one's general social meeting and mingling with others; for large group consciousness and behavior; for width and depth of intellectual vision; and still others.

All of the educational needs are being revealed by sober commonsense analyses of human affairs. They are not the demands of doctrinaire educationalists. They demand a tremendous reconstruction of the curriculum from kindergarten to the end of college. The movement is under way. No one can yet see the program that it will, ten or twenty years hence, bring forth.

Confronted with these imperative and unquestionable needs, clearly our schools must rid themselves, and speedily, of any useless academic accumulations. Whatever Latin does not function in the community life must be sloughed off, and only that portion retained which actually does function, and only for those for whom it will function. Likewise, algebra. Likewise, geometry, drawing, singing, dramatics, amateur literary composition, and facts and skills and habits of every kind that do not lead to man's needed vision and judgment and right behavior.

If time permitted, I should like to give some consideration to the report on the junior high school, because in the fundamental idea of the junior high school there is much of immediate practical value to superintendents of schools for the deaf. Just at this time when we are discussing possible changes in the organization of our state schools and of our national college, we shall make a grave mistake if we overlook what the junior high school type of organization has to offer, especially in the recognition of the changes incident to adolescence, which have hitherto been ignored in large measure in our state schools. In

the attitude toward vocational training, and in the more flexible curriculum offered, the junior high school type of organization offers much that is worthy of thoughtful study.

I have not touched specifically upon character education nor upon the application of psychiatry to the solution of school problems, nor of the value of close coöperation with the homes which has been effected through the parent-teacher associations, nor of the nursery schools, and child study groups. What I have said has related chiefly to what is taking place in public school education. Only by implication has the significance of these movements to our work been indicated. It is fairly obvious that we are not keeping pace with the public schools in the effort to adapt school work to the everyday needs of the school child. We cannot afford to remain out of touch with these movements unless we are willing to answer to the charge of being provincial, if not antiquated, in our methods. May I say again what I said in St. Augustine, that this Conference should be brought into close touch with the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association. If our ideal for our pupils is normality, if we desire that they approximate their hearing brothers and sisters in point of view, in preparation for life, and in everyday efficient living, then we should place ourselves in position to get the maximum benefit from the study and research and discussions of that great body of progressive educators either as individuals or as a group. We will then be in strategic position to select and apply those things which are good in modern education.

Dr. GRUVER: The discussion will be opened by Dr. Pittenger.

Dr. PITTENGER: I had hoped that I would be able to read Mr. McManaway's very able paper before I was called upon to discuss it, but I did not have that opportunity.

I have jotted down these three points as topics that have been under consideration in the general field of education: Individual differences; enlarged or changed curricula; provision for higher education.

The first two of these topics Superintendent McManaway has covered quite extensively. I felt when I came into this work ten years ago that there was not the effort to study individual differences in this field that there was in public school work. I felt that of the three things—subject matter, methods and child—the very great emphasis was on methods, to the neglect of subject matter, and especially in the study of the child.

There are evidences to me now that we are making progress in the matter of adapting subject matter to the needs of the child.

I want to speak more particularly on the third topic, provision for higher education of the deaf. I enjoyed the very excellent paper this morning of Superintendent McIntire, but I wish that he had mentioned some villages where the entire school population ranged from 50 or 75 to 500, instead of Atlanta, Los Angeles, Detroit and some other cities. We must compare our work, in a way, with villages where the entire school population is not more than 500. What opportunity is there in a school for the deaf with a population, say, of 200, of very much differentiation in course of study? Los Angeles can have 18, or whatever the number of courses of study it may want to have, but a small school for the deaf, with a range from little children who do not know their own names, up to perhaps almost high school standard, does not permit of 18 different courses of study. It is necessary for us out of a great variety of topics to select a few which we can emphasize and stress.

As a public school superintendent in a small city of ten or twelve thousand I used to go to the national superintendents' association every year, and for a long time I returned home with more or less discouragement

because I heard the discussion concerning the industrial work in great cities like Chicago, Cleveland, New York, Philadelphia, and St. Louis, and finally I realized that our conditions were very different and that we must decide what we could do in a small way in our small system of schools, and not be depressed with what we could not do. Can a school for the deaf with an entire population of 200, 250, or 300, economically and satisfactorily have a four year high school course that will function in a definite way and allow for any variation and variety for individual differences? That is one of the questions. I think the time may arrive when we can come nearer approaching it. I think we should all strive toward as high a standard as we can reach, and when I think of those diminishing classes and the extra qualifications needed to teach the high school work, it seems to me that the problem becomes serious.

The public schools in general education are meeting that situation better. In any community where the school population, say, is 300, it is necessary to have a small high school, larger in proportion to the 300 than our deaf high school should be. In that community they must have a limited course of study and a limited amount of industrial work, but there is not a boy graduating from that country high school who does not have open to him any number of opportunities after he has finished what his local community can give. I want to ask, What can we give our boys and girls when they have finished, what opportunities are there open to them? A boy graduating from a township high school, who has had no opportunity, or very little opportunity, for technical education, knows that he can get into any one of a score of technical schools in very short order; or if he prefers some professional school, he knows that many are open to him, and there is that constant pull-up.

The opportunities for admission to our own college for the deaf are so limited that there is very little en-

couragement to the average boy and girl to qualify. The pull is not very strong up.

I do not know the solution. I do not know whether Dr. Jones' suggestion this morning is the solution or not. I think it would help materially. Personally, I think a greater Gallaudet with two or three times the number of students than the opportunities offered now would be a great incentive to our boys and girls to look forward to. I do not feel that a trade school or trade school courses would at all need to operate against the standard courses which have been given. It has not done so in our great universities. What are the latter doing? They are not only multiplying the courses to meet the need of a great variety of students, but they are literally taking the universities out over the state, peddling them out to the people in extension courses, in short, courses of all sorts and kinds. Do we hear the alumni of those schools objecting to that? They forward greater opportunities which are offered to the people.

We have had a number of boys who have gone as far as we could take them on the linotype. I wonder how many superintendents here can claim for their schools that they can give a finished course on the linotype and make their pupils tradesmen? We have not been able to do so. We have had a number of boys who have hunted around to find some place where they could get some additional training, and at great odds some of them have persevered and succeeded. Why should we not have some place, a course in our own profession, which would take care of such boys and give them the opportunity which they need? Compared with the advance or higher education of the hearing, our facilities for the higher education of the deaf are woefully weak. Where there are multiplied opportunities for hearing boys and girls, there are almost no opportunities for the deaf. Statistics, figures alone will prove it. Out of all the United States, perhaps not more than 150 boys and girls now are having

the opportunity of a higher education than their home states can give.

I want to say again I do not know the solution, but I feel personally that this is one of the most serious problems in our profession, and I further believe that if we can make provision for more extensive work, that immediately it will pull up all along the line, and that our boys and girls will stretch up for that just as the hearing boys and girls do. What has been the result in schools for the hearing? The colleges are almost swamped with boys and girls who are going to college, and there are more coming. The number is increasing rapidly. I believe there is no other topic before this conference that is so important or so serious as this question of provision for a more extensive education of the deaf. I want to say that in Indiana we are going to do our best to meet it. We have had it now for 13 years in our school, just as you have had it, but with us it is a sort of Macedonian cry. Why should we not have more pull from the top?

Mr. DRIGGS: For about 25 years in the Utah School we made no provision for high school education. During that time we had graduated from the college five young men and women. During the last 20 years, since we added high school work, we have had four times as many boys and girls go to college as formerly, and twice the number graduate with degrees. I don't know whether that gives you an idea or not. The facts are that if you will add high school work to the present curriculum, combine your upper classes when they are small, teach the same subjects to the junior and senior classes, to the freshman and sophomore classes, I think you can get by very well, even in the small schools for the deaf. In our school we are having four times as many boys and girls who finish now, wanting to go on, and twice the number that do finish college, as we had before we began our high school.

Mr. FORRESTER read a paper on

RESIDUAL HEARING AND ITS BEARING ON ORAL TRAINING

The propriety of bringing this topic up for discussion so soon after the Washington Conference on the Problems of the Deaf and the Deafened (January, 1928) may reasonably be questioned. New developments can hardly be expected so soon. The chairman of the Executive Committee, however, felt the subject was of such importance that it should be again discussed at this meeting, and giving me no option he wrote: "I have put you down for a paper on Residual Hearing and Oral Training." Something of what I have to say must necessarily be "cauld kail het again,"[1] but even if it is the same kail I trust I shall be able to throw in a few more ingredients and thus disguise the brand better than the cook of a certain Atlantic liner on which I once travelled disguised the items on his bill of fare. Different kinds of soup were supposed to be served each day. All were differently, some wonderfully, named, yet all tasted alike. As I have read three papers within recent years treating the subject somewhat differently I shall here leave out much of the technical and discuss briefly some general guiding principles.

Residual Hearing.—Do we know every child in our school who has residual hearing worth stimulating? If so, are we taking active steps to care for it? What value do we place upon it? May we neglect it? Some of us wouldn't if we could. Some of us couldn't if we would. We can't afford to neglect it. For is it not true that at the present time we are receiving more requests to take hard-of-hearing pupils than we ever received before? Perhaps with the going of the little red schoolhouse there has also to some extent departed the teacher who was more than a school mistress, the family friend who with the exercise of time and patience gave much help to the

[1]Cold soup warmed over.

hard-of-hearing child. Unfortunately, it is also true that in some country schools there have been pupils who were put down as dull and stupid who were really mentally bright but who, having defective hearing, were not able to make their grades. Here let me say that if we do not give particular heed to the residual hearing of such children, they have no place in a school for the deaf. In years gone by have we not all known of children who entered school with practically normal speech, but who sooner or later because of the same methods applied in their case as in the case of deaf children, finally lost their natural speech and acquired the stilted mechanical speech of the deaf of that time? That is a condition for which we must not be responsible. It can be avoided in schools even such as ours. That their natural speech should be retained as long and as much as possible will not be questioned. Some hold that these pupils should not be placed in schools for the deaf. I should qualify that statement by saying that it all depends on the school. Their auricular training must be along different lines. Conversational sentences should take the place of syllable drill in the beginning work as far as possible, syllable drill more for supplementary corrective work but not to supplant language work.

What bearing has residual hearing on oral work? It has a great bearing on oral work or ought to have. If the work done does not result in better speech or greater ability to discriminate sounds through the ear, then like some forms of rhythm work it is not jutified. Time spent in the classroom listening to phonograph music, purely for the enjoyment of it, is not justified. It must accomplish something of real worth besides, if the pleasure to be gained by the pupil through the exercises is to warrant the time spent on them. Our day is all too short and other forms of pleasure can be substituted which are less costly in time and money. Let them have phonograph music by all means but during their periods of recreation.

Training residual hearing must be systematic and regular and those with fifty per cent hearing or over should receive most of their instruction through the ear with the natural voice. If this is not done, the pupil will depend more and more on his eye and less and less on his ear for impressions, making the pupil appear more and more deaf. It may be argued that he will be the better speech-reader for using his eye more than his ear; but surely the one who knows speech through the ear has also an advantage over the one who doesn't. Besides, hearing is a very precious thing to every child and to every parent and should be to every superintendent. However, I should like to add, that as imperfect hearing produces imperfect speech, corrective speech work should go hand in hand with auricular work. Further, if exercise strengthens faculty, the lack of it weakens the member concerned. A certain stimulation is likely to produce physical improvement of the ear but not such as will necessarily improve the hearing, i. e., bring about an increase in the percentage of hearing as measured by the audiometer. We all know how useless an automobile may be when the little distributor points are rusty or out of contact, even though the rest of the mechanism may be in perfect working order. In the ear little points of contact are sometimes missing. I doubt very much if a delicate member like the ear which has become atrophied through lack of use can ever be much benefited but there is a development in the ability to discriminate voice sounds without a corresponding improvement in intensity. In other words the improvement is one of kind or quality rather than of degree or intensity. Tests we had made with the 3A Audiometer would tend to corroborate this. In some cases there has been practically no change in the audiometer readings though most are now able to understand many words spoken at close range and make use of their hearing to an extent they never did before. An old principle of psychology operates here namely: "Each

successive operation tends to improve the faculty, and more particularly in the particular direction in which it is exercised." The eye that has been trained to appreciate the beauty of an ancient ruin is not necessarily trained thereby to appreciate the beauty of a piece of Carrickmacross lace. The tea blender acquires great skill in the blending of teas, but it is doubtful if his taste for ham and eggs is any keener than our own. If the principle applies to auricular training as I believe it undoubtedly does, then isn't it more language drill through the ear and less drum drill that is wanted? I recall a certain deaf boy who when he was asked what music he liked best replied: "The drum." Now, I am not advocating doing away with a certain amount of stimulation through musical instruments. In my paper at Washington last January I advocated it; but don't let this thing run to seed. Let everything be done decently and in order, and in its proper ratio.

All this leads to another question—that of classification. Striking differences present themselves among different individuals. One responds quickly to stimulus while another not so quick to respond will have greater discriminative power. Thus given equal degrees of hearing as measured by the audiometer, one may not be able to analyze his impressions either so readily or so accurately due probably to a less fine organization of the brain as a whole and less concentrative ability. The same principle holds good in speech reading; but as in residual hearing cases there are two other even more important factors that account for differences in response—language capacity and intelligence. The pupil with excellent language ability and inteligence will, other things being equal, be the better speech reader and better able to differentiate spoken words and to reproduce them.

It may interest you to compare the results of a year's training with fifteen pupils without an instrument. The table gives the perceentage of hearing in both ears and

the number of vowesl, nouns, commands, and questions recognized at the end of the period.

Pupil	Age when hearing was lost	Age	Hearing per cent, left ear	Hearing per cent, right ear	Vowels	Nouns	Commands	Questions
R. B.	Born	8	45	30	7	60	18	5
A. V.	1	8	25	25	3	12	10	....
M. H.	2	8	55	40	all	125	56	18
L. S.	Born	9	45	30	5	73	30	4
E. T.	Born	9	40	45	7	54	20	12
M. G.	Born	10	25	20	3	12	....	....
S. M.	5	10	40	40	all	75	20	12
L. H.	2	10	35	20	3	7	....	....
J. C.	½	10	10	25	3	10	....	....
H. F.	4	10	45	55	6	55	13	12
I. W.	2½	11	20	20	5	8	....	....
P. O.	Born	13	65	45	8	90	34	12
W. M.	1	14	33	25	3	42	18	6
I. H.	2	14	25	55	7	55	23	12
E. S.	2½	14	35	35	4	40	11	10

You will notice that those with twenty to thirty per cent hearing recognize three vowels. Those with thirty-five to forty-five per cent recognize four to seven vowels. Two with from forty to fifty-five per cent get all the vowels; but both those boys lost their hearing after having acquired speech. Again, two others with higher averages of hearing get fewer vowels, yet both of these have greatly improved hearing as registered by the audiometer. Their improvement is of recent date due in one case to clearing up a bad condition in the ear and in the other case to greatly improved physique. One little girl with only twenty per cent hearing gets five vowels. She is an unusually bright child and perhaps her keener mental attitude may account to some extent for the difference in her case.

Some of these results may seem meagre and not worth while; but after I have seen what can be accomplished with children after years of systematic training—children who at first could get only a few vowels, and finally

could take sentences and a good deal of ordinary conversation through the ear even without instruments—I am inclined to go very carefully before denying them the benefit of such a course.

To get the best possible results from the training of residual hearing there are certain preliminaries that should be gone through. There should be a thorough medical examination of each pupil on entering school—a general physical examination and in addition an examination of eyes, ears, nose and throat. The aurist will find cases that need attention, nasal discharges, catarrhal conditions to be corrected, diseased tonsils and adenoids that call for removal and so on. These examinations should be gone through on principle and the results recorded. It is the only scientific way to begin. Testing of very young pupils with the audiometer is not to be greatly depended upon as all those who have tried to test them in this way will agree; but we can get an approximate idea by this and other means. We mentioned a general physical examination for more reasons than one. It is the only safe course. What about cases of heart trouble for instance? These can be found in little children only upon medical examination. There is another valid reason. Some children of weakly constitution need to be built up; and in many cases we have found that improvement in the general physique has resulted in improvement in hearing.

We referred to cases of fifty per cent hearing. What about those between thirty and forty? A hearing vocabulary can be built up with these and even with some who have less than thirty per cent. We cannot draw sharp divisions however, the experienced teacher must to a certain extent adapt her work to the individual needs of the child—which is hard work. In some cases a good instrument will help, and there are several good ones on the market. Miss Elliott, one of our teachers, who is not guilty of running to fads, says she has found that in

some cases children with as little as five per cent hearing have gained confidence through the use of an instrument due probably, he thinks, to the fact that the nature of voice has begun to dawn upon them and mean something more to them than it ever did before. Such training should all result in better speech and more natural voice. In some cases, of course, sight and hearing have both to be exercised at the discretion of the teacher. For instance, one boy will say "shool" when trying to pronounce the word "school", "apologized" pronounced with a hard "g" instead of soft, "vicinity" pronounced "vikinity" instead of with soft "c".

In conclusion, how are we going to make this part of our work a success? Through better educated and more thoroughly trained teachers along those lines. A year's training does not qualify one as a teacher of the deaf; it is little more than an initiation as all those of many years' experience will readily agree. But, there are some individuals here who never had a day's training before entering a school for the deaf. The deaf survived. Let us not therefore be dismayed but go forward in the spirit of the rough old lines:

> Though before you mountains rise, Go ahead.
> Scale them, certainly you can;
> Let them proudly dare the skies;
> What are mountains to a man? Go ahead.

In the following paper, Mr. ELSTAD continued the discussion on

AURICULAR TRAINING AND ORAL INSTRUCTION

Mr. Forrester has put this important question before us in a clear and concise way and it certainly merits consideration on the part of this conference.

He has asked us whether we know every child in our school who has residual hearing worth stimulating. We should know how many we have. The schools for the hearing are beginning the work of determining how many children they have who require special work in speech and lip-

reading. Surely our schools for the deaf should know how many children have hearing enough to be of use in school work.

The physician who presided at the banquet last evening restated the fact that some 3,000,000 of our children in the schools for the hearing have impaired hearing sufficient to make special work necessary. Part of this problem is going to fall to the lot of our state schools. Are we prepared to meet it? Will we be prepared to put them in classes where their hearing will be used and their speech and lip-reading developed, or will we have to place these children in classes with those who have little or no hearing? We must not wait for these children from the public schools. The problem is with us now. A large percentage of our pupils in our schools at this time have enough hearing to make instruction through the ear possible and practicable. An audiometer 3A is a great help and yet it has its weaknesses. The 2A is a better one. Let me give you an illustration of the unreliability of the audiometer 3A. I have two girls who have audiometer readings the same, namely 30 per cent residual hearing. One is thirteen years old, the other is fifteen. They have both had several years of work through the ear. Despite the fact that their audiometer readings are the same, there is a wide difference in accomplishments. This past spring I gave a demonstration with these two girls to illustrate the different islands of hearing in different children. I have a telephone in my office and there is one in the library. I placed the two girls by my office telephone. I went to the library telephone and called by office number. When the bell rang one girl could not hear it. The younger girl responded at once and took off the receiver. She gave it to the other girl and we carried on a conversation on a subject strange to her. The first girl would not be able to distinguish a word of what I said while the second girl carried on the conversation very well indeed. She has talked over long

distance to a town in upper New York state with her father. This difference in ability to use hearing is due to the fact that the islands of hearing are not the same. The audiometer does not detect this difference and for this reason the 2A model is far superior in that it determines hearing along the whole range.

After we have determined who are to be given this auricular work, we must arrange for the work itself. Of course, it would be desirable to have special schools for this class of children. There are so many issues up for consideration that such a rapid stride is not possible as yet. We can, however, with our system of rotation of classes, have a class or classes of hard-of-hearing children rotate with the others. We hear it said, "These children will never learn to speak or read the lips. We must put them in a manual class." If we can make plans for manual classes we can make a place for hard-of-hearing classes. The main trouble is that the desire is not there and the desire is not present because we do not yet appreciate the importance of this work.

It is true that the kinds of deafness vary. We must place in a class only those who have the same degree of language ability, and the same degree of residual hearing. With such a class, work can be begun and if the work is faithfully and systematically carried on results will encourage a large plan in this field of education.

This class will necessarily have to have some hearing aid. There are many such aids on the market to-day. Some are good. Some are not so good. Some are good for some people and do not aid others. We must try them out. If the class is not too large, I should favor individual instruments such as the new acousticon or the audiphone put out by the Western Electric Company. These the child can carry with him. They are compact and almost invisible. But why should we be sensitive about aids to hearing? We do not hesitate to pause for the purpose of taking out a pair of glasses. We wipe

them and adjust them and finally use them. Nothing is ever thought of it. Eventually, hearing aids will not cause a flurry of excitement either. With these aids, together with the ability to read the lips, the child has a wonderful combination. The eye helps the ear and the ear helps the eye. With these aids the speed of comprehension of the spoken word is almost doubled.

Five of my children use these instruments with varying degrees of success, depending upon the amount of hearing present. One boy has been with us four weeks. He is 18 years old. He became deaf four years ago from a disease similar to spinal meningitis. He is partly crippled, but he has a fine mind. These past four years he has shut himself off from society. I have been working on him a year to bring him out of this and this fall he decided to come to school, after I had seen him personally and had told him he could hear well enough to complete his education eventually in a school for the hearing. He thought, seriously, that he was totally deaf. His nerve of hearing was almost dead from inaction. An arm tied to the side for four years would be useless also upon its release. For four weeks I have been talking into this boy's ears and daily he has improved. To-day I can read to him from the daily paper and he rarely asks for a repetition of any part of it. Last Thursday I took him to Fifth Avenue to a place where all the best hearing aids are placed for demonstration. We tried them all. He chose two as being the best, the audiphone and the acousticon. He is a very poor lip-reader. With these instruments he heard well enough, with the help of his limited lip-reading ability, to follow a conversation carried on across the room. Think what he will be able to do later on with more training. I admit that his language is perfect and his speech is nearly perfect, but the fact remains that he now can use his ears where previously he couldn't. He learned to speak and he learned his language while he had his hearing. I want

our hard-of-hearing children to get their speech and language through the ear in the same way that hearing children do. Then they get it thoroughly and much more quickly.

I know you will say, "We haven't the time. We haven't the money." Yet we have money for rhythm work. Surely the ability to use the precious remnant of hearing God has been good enough to leave the child is as important as rhythm work, which is often a play period. If it is a question of sacrificing one for the other, surely there can be no question as to which one should be dropped.

Training the ear to hear spoken language is not the only benefit derived from auricular training. Speech correction is a big part of it. Children with only thirty per cent residual hearing can have speech imperfections corrected through the ear. It is the quickest method. It is the logical method.

We study each child so as to place him in the right industrial department. We must study the individual so as to place him in the right auricular group also.

We have heard much to-day about the schools for the hearing and our efforts to work along with them. Many of these hard-of-hearing children can be returned to schools for the hearing with a knowledge of lip-reading and the knowledge of using every bit of residual hearing. I know this is possible because I have replaced some myself after two years of special attention. Surely such results are worth striving for.

While the discussion of industrial work was going on this morning, the idea came to me, What a wonderful place to use residual hearing. The instructor goes from child to child in the industrial department. Wouldn't it be easy for him to step up to a boy's ear and give him his instructions through the ear? Perhaps it is done in many cases, but I am afraid all too seldom. If we would only utilize every opportunity for stimulating the

nerve of hearing, we would bring joy to the child, to his parents and to ourselves.

We all crave to be normal. We must strive to be normal. It is our duty as heads of schools to try and reach the goal of normality for our children.

My plea is that we give auricular work a place and, given a place, the results will stimulate greater effort in this splendid work.

Dr. LONG: I am very much interested in the subject of residual hearing and oral training, because I think that if I had had the training while a boy, perhaps I could use my hearing to-day, but because of the lack of that training the nerve has become atrophied. We all agree that it is a good thing, and something ought to be done. We might pass a law providing for it, but where will we get the teachers to do it? We have a great number of pupils coming to us with defective hearing from the public schools. They try to do a little auricular work, but what can we do without trained teachers? We can do a little after a fashion. We want to organize the work in the lower grades, but we can't get any teachers. We had one or two who put in applications but we found that they were only pretending. We employed them only to find that they knew nothing about it. Where can it be carried on? We train teachers for oral work; where is the training for auricular work? Why don't some of our normal schools take that up and provide teachers to take on the work?

[Miss VIRGINIA A. OSBORN continued the discussion with an account of how the City of Cincinnati is attempting to meet the school problem of its hard-of-hearing children, by classifying them into four groups: (1) Those with slight impairment of hearing who remain in their regular classrooms but are given a "point of vantage" and special consideration by the teacher; (2) Those with somewhat greater impairment of hearing who still remain in their regular classes but obtain speech reading lessons

at stated periods; (3) Those who are taken out of the regular classes and given instruction in a special group with hearing aids, if necessary; (4) Those who are very hard of hearing will be taught by means of special amplifying apparatus in a separate group, though not at the city school for deaf children.]

Whereupon, at 4:50 o'clock p. m., the Conference recessed until 8 o'clock this day.

THIRD SESSION: WEDNESDAY EVENING, OCTOBER 31, 1928.

The Conference reassembled at 8 o'clock p. m. in the Assembly Room of the Hotel Farragut, President E. McK. Goodwin presiding.

Mr. Goodwin requested Dr. Hall to introduce the speaker of the evening, Dr. Knight Dunlap, chairman of the Division of Anthropology and Psychology of the National Research Council. In doing so, Dr. Hall referred to the active interest shown in recent years by the National Research Council in furthering research studies of the problems of the deaf, such studies already including an investigation in the field of tactual interpretation of speech, a survey of the physical causes of deafness, and a survey of schools for the deaf. Under the leadership of Dr. Dunlap, it was stated by Dr. Hall, this interest of the National Research Council has within the last last year taken a broader turn with the calling of a Conference on Problems of the Deaf, attended by prominent individuals in the related fields, to consider all aspects involved in the problem of impaired audition, and to formulate a comprehensive program of research.

The address by Dr. DUNLAP follows:

THE WORK OF THE DIVISION OF ANTHROPOLOGY AND PSYCHOLOGY OF THE NATIONAL RESEARCH COUNCIL ON PROBLEMS OF THE DEAF

It gives me great pleasure to come here because this is above all a gathering of the persons whose coöperation

we very much want in the work which has been undertaken by the Division. You will understand that the National Research Council does not do any research. The function of the Research Council is to promote and facilitate research in whatever ways it may find possible. In a general way the National Research Council attempts to restrict its activities to the field of the natural sciences. In this particular work, however, we are in the midst of problems which cannot be narrowly laid down. The scientific side of the problems and the social and educacational sides are so inextricably bound up that they cannot be separated, and the National Research Council has accepted that fact.

The Division of Anthropology and Psychology came into this field through its having earlier assumed responsibility for some research on the topic of what has been called the "Tactual Perception of Sound", which is really a matter of the vibration sense. I had done some work on this problem myself, nineteen years ago, and it seemed to me quite useful that someone should go into that field and try to find an answer to the questions which had been before us for a number of years. That work did not have a very successful or satisfactory outcome, and it seemed to several of us, two years ago, that the problems in the field of auditory disability were so interrelated that no problem could be satisfactorily worked out without very serious consideration of problems in other parts of the field. So, with the consent and approval of the Division itself, I proposed that we should get together a group of men and women representing not only the educational institutions for the deaf, but representing also several scientific fields which are important for this work, to see what such a conference would be able to propose as a fundamental step toward research.

In the calling of that conference we were limited in a very specific way. We did not have much money.

The Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial gave us a fund but we did not feel like asking them for a large amount of money, and hence the conference was limited to a small group, and those principally from the eastern part of the United States.

In the planning of that conference I required a great deal of help (knowing very little about the field myself) and that help was given without hesitation and without stint by a considerable number of people whom I see here present. The organizing of that conference would not have been possible without that help from your members.

We had a program of papers for the first day of the conference, but we had no slate. The conference assembled, and in my opinion did a remarkable piece of work. The members discussed the difficulties obtaining in the education and care and treatment of the deaf in a way which was, to me, most illuminating. They decided that something ought to be done. As their most important action they requested the National Research Council to appoint in the Division of Anthropology and Psychology a Committee which should attempt to prepare a comprehensive program of research on the problems of the deaf and of the hard of hearing.

That Committee was shortly appointed. It organized last spring and appointed a number of subcommittees, deciding that the only way in which it could fill such a large order was by entrusting details to groups specifically selected with the details in view. The membership of the Committee and its subcommittees includes many members of your group.

[At this point the speaker entered into details concerning the organization, membership, and problems of the several subcommittees, which are omitted from this report.]

What the Committee is trying to do is not to settle any question, nor to express opinions on any question. I find that every member of the Committee and its sub-

committees has very positive opinions, but we are laboring with this in view: to suppress our opinions with regard to the problems, and to suggest ways in which the problems may be attacked. We don't want opinions ultimately; we want facts. The questions before each subcommittee and before the Committee are therefore these: First, what is there in the field that we don't know and that it would unquestionably be useful to know? The second question is: Amongst this enormous mass of ignorance, what particular points are there that it seems practicable to clear up? Which of the many questions, answers to which would be exceedingly useful, seem capable, practically, of being answered? That reduces our list somewhat. Each of these subcommittees finds many questions which should be answered but which it sees no practical way of attacking at present. In the third place; if the question seems possible of attack, what method of attack can we suggest?

The whole work of this Committee, therefore, is the outlining of problems of research, and the attempt to unite the final collection of problems. When that work shall have been done, the work of the Committee will be ended.

We have decided that we must complete this program and make it available by the first of February. We contemplated that time limit last spring. We are certain now that we must fulfill the labor by that time if possible. There are very many reasons why haste, if it can be made without waste, is important.

In the first place, it has become apparent that we are, by our activities, holding up research. I have indications that certain attempts to commence research have been inhibited or checked by our activities, not by our direct activities, but by the fact that under the National Research Council the program is being prepared. That is a useful thing. There is nothing that can be more unfortunate than the starting of research which might

turn out to have been ill-judged and perhaps in the wrong direction, either under incompetent direction or too hastily planned. But that check must not be for long.

In the second place, already some of the suggestions made by the Committee in its preliminary report have been seized upon in other quarters, and though we are glad to see anything that we recommend undertaken by competent organizations, yet it is undesirable that many of our proposals shall have been announced elsewhere and so be somewhat stale when we promulgate them.

The Committee will probably finish its work by the first of January, provided the subcommittees complete theirs as they seem to promise at present. The Committee will probably have its report in such shape that it can easily be put in final shape by the latter part of January. It should be possible, therefore, to recall the Conference for the first week in February. But that conference will be somewhat larger than the original one, a more complete conference, more representative. The report of the Committee will be presented, discussed, perhaps amended and, we hope, approved. It will be necessary, therefore, that that conference be as representative as possible, not only of institutions and of organizations, but also of fields of scientific research.

The follow-up is going to be the difficult thing. What are we going to do with our report if it is approved by the final and large conference? As to that, I can't tell you precisely. That remains, to a certain extent, in the hands of the final conference which will decide what it wishes done in following up the report, and will depend further upon initiative and activity from within the National Research Council. I shall do what I can for the remainder of the year to carry into effect any recommendations that the Committee or the Conference may make, to forward in every possible way actual research.

Now, what will have to be done when the program is perfected and adopted involves a lot of things. It in-

volves money, of course. The question has been asked me within the last few months over and over again: "Is there going to be any money for research?" I have had to say: "I can't tell you. Neither the Committee, nor the Division has asked for any money. They cannot ask for any money. We have not seriously considered that point." I say, "have not seriously considered it"; every member has, I presume, considered it. The chairman has considered it at great length, but we have not officially discussed it. For this reason: Judging by the past, judging by things which have happened not merely in connection with the work with the deaf, but in connection with research of other types, judging by our collective knowledge of the field, it would be unwise either to start new research or to ask for money for research until we have a really adequate program for more research than that which we wish to start at first.

In the second place, we shall have to show that there is available personnel to carry out the research as it is laid out. That is going to be a difficult problem. The problem of personnel is one of the fundamental problems in any research. If we have our program, if we can find the proper group of individuals that we know are competent to carry out a certain part of that program, the largest part of the difficulty has been met. The finding of adequate personnel which would be satisfactory not merely to the personnel involved but to the whole group of people, including the scientific critics, is not a simple matter.

Ultimately we shall have to have the coöperation of practically everybody who is professionally involved in this work. We are assured of the coöperation of considerable groups. The scientific men who are involved, I think, will stand behind the program after it has been approved. The American Otological Association gave me assurance last spring of their hearty support of our plan. Other groups are, whether by official endorsement or by unanimous statement, behind it. But we need the co-

öperation of every group of people professionally working in the field of deafness and hearing defects. Now, why do we need that coöperation? Well, there is a great deal in moral support, of course. Nobody can come into this field, and even though granted large sums of money, spend that money usefully and economically and get results without the moral support of practically everybody in the field. That is unquestioned. The further point is that in the actual working, the carrying out of the work, the active coöperation of practically every institution will be required.

Suppose the Committee finds, and suppose the Conference approves, that it will be exceedingly useful to survey the present teachers. How is this survey going to be made? It cannot be made by an outside agency assisting. It has got to be made with the coöperation of the institutions; otherwise, it cannot be made. As I see the program of research developing, I feel personally assured of this: That, not merely in this question of surveys, but throughout the program, there must be the coöperation of paid workers; the coöperation of continuing agencies in the National Research Council and elsewhere; the coöperation of people who have money to give; the coöperation of men in various lines of scientific work whose advice will be necessary; and the coöperation of people whose professional work is the care and instruction of the deaf. Coöperation of that kind is to be brought about, or else there will be nothing at all.

Now, I think the coöperation can be obtained. One thing has struck me all the way through this work: that every one who has been asked to help so far, at whatever sacrifice of a reasonable kind, has done so. Probably many people whom we have not called upon, may resent not being asked to give their services. We have not been able to utilize the services of all those who are willing to serve.

So far as I can see, every one, quite outside of the question of personal service, has lent us his enthusiasm,

not only in institutions, but in the scientific field outside. So that the whole thing seems to me at present quite hopeful.

Now, just one more point and then I am through. You understand that I am no expert. I was interested in a statement made by Mr. Denison this summer before the Social Science Research Council—you know Mr. Denison has been very much interested in industrial research, and has been in a fortunate position where he could carry on and promote industrial research, and in describing some of his work he made the statement—that whenever he had in his plant a very important problem to be solved, which involved several ends of his plant, he had to have all those ends represented. If the problem involved the production end, he had to have somebody who understood the production of his plant from top to bottom; if it involved the selling end, he had to have someone who absolutely understood the conditions of his selling work; and so every department involved needed to be represented. But that was not enough. He said they never got anywhere then unless they had in somebody who was an expert in any of those lines, to evaluate the experts' views. Each expert sees the thing only from his slant. The selling expert sees it only from the selling end, and he doesn't see the manufacturing end difficulties. And so with the manufacturing expert. There is required a man that Mr. Denison calls the "catalyzer", who is not sufficiently expert in any line but that he can see the points of all of them and help them to get together. Now, that is the practical result which can be expected in many other lines of work, and if I can be a useful catalyzer in this work, I think I shall have done all that could have been expected of me.

[Among the topics included in the general discussion which followed the address by Dr. Dunlap were such questions as the discrimination against deaf workers by labor unions, the insurance and liability problem, legal discrimination against the deaf, and refusal on the part

of state authorities to grant to deaf persons permits to drive automobiles—all in general concerned with non-school matters.

The Conference, also, by a rising vote expressed deep appreciation to Dr. Dunlap for his excellent address and for the interest he has taken in the problems of the deaf.

Whereupon, at 9:40 o'clock p. m. the Conference adjourned until the following morning, Thursday, November 1, 1928.]

(*To be Continued.*)

ANNOUNCEMENT OF THE TWENTY-SIXTH MEETING OF THE CONVENTION OF AMERICAN INSTRUCTORS OF THE DEAF

The program committee of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf has prepared the following tentative program for the meeting to be held at the Minnesota School for the Deaf, Faribault, Minnesota, June 17-21, 1929.

Monday, June 17

8:00 P. M. *Opening Session*, Supt. Frank M. Driggs, of Utah, presiding.

1. Invocation, Dean W. C. Hengen, Cathedral of Our Merciful Savior, Faribault, Minn.
2. Address of Welcome, Hon. Theodore Christianson, Governor of Minnesota.
3. Responses, Dr. Harris Taylor, New York.
   Dr. Percival Hall, Washington, D. C.
4. President's Address, Mr. Frank M. Driggs.
5. Miscellaneous Business.
6. Announcements.

Tuesday, June 18

9-11 A. M. *Exhibits and Demonstrations*, East Wing, Noyes Hall.

Industrial, P. N. Peterson, Minnesota School.
Art, Mrs. M. A. Turner, Iowa School.
Mr. H. E. Bruns, Minnesota School.
Rhythm, I. Bjorlee, Maryland School.

Kindergarten.

Radioear, Miss R. E. Dawes, Western Pennsylvania School.

Charts, Miss Jeannette J. Christmas, Pennsylvania Institution.

Miss Margaret Bodycomb, Pennsylvania Institution.

Wing Symbols, Minnesota School.

Domestic Art, Miss Cora Edwards, Minnesota School.

Domestic Science, Mrs. J. T. Boatwright, Minnesota School.

Health, Miss C. E. Newlee, Parker Practice School, Chicago.

Books, Miss C. E. Newlee.

Teletactor, Miss M. Lauritsen, A. G. Bell School, Chicago.

9-10 A. M.—*Demonstration of Class Work,* West Wing, Noyes Hall.

Sequence Action, Verbs and Tenses, Miss Josephine F. Quinn, Minnesota School, 2nd Grade, Oral.

News Items, Language and Symbols, Miss Mary N. Bowen, Minnesota School, 3rd Grade, Oral.

Incorporation, Reproduction and Description, Mrs. Arch Strong, Minnesota School, 4th Grade, Oral.

Ask, Say, Tell, Dictation, Miss Margaret Hembrook, Minnesota School, 5th Grade, Oral.

Croker, Jones, Pratt Methods, Miss Margaret Westervelt, Minnesota School, 6th Grade, Oral.

Current Events, Miss Sarah E. Lewis, Minnesota School, Advanced Pupils.

10-11 A. M. *Demonstration of Class Work,* West Wing, Noyes Hall.

Sense Training, Miss Dorothy R. Ziebach, South Dakota School.

Silent Reading, Miss Clara E. Newlee.

Instruction of Backward Pupils, Mrs. Ota Blankenship, Nebraska School.

Teaching Arithmetic, Supt. F. W. Booth, Nebraska School.

Auricular Training, Miss Margaret S. Kent, Maryland School.

Speech and Speech Reading, Miss Katharine Williams, Wisconsin School.

Advance English, Miss Mary E. Williams, Wisconsin School.

Rhythm, Classes of the Minnesota School.

11-12 A. M. *General Meeting.* Lecture, Dr. Donald G. Paterson, University of Minnesota.

2:00 P. M. *Section Meetings.*

1. Industrial, H. B. Brown, Pennsylvania Institution, chairman.
2. Kindergarten.

8:00 P. M. Reception, Superintendent and Mrs. V. O. Skyberg.

Wednesday, June 19

9-11 A. M. Exhibits and Demonstrations, East Wing, Noyes Hall.

9-11 A. M. Demonstration of Class Work, West Wing, Noyes Hall.

11-12 A. M. Lecture, "Education and Training of the Young Child," Dr. John E. Anderson, University of Minnesota.

2:00 P. M. *Section Meetings.*

Art, Mrs. M. A. Turner, Iowa School, chairman.

Business meeting, Conference of Superintendents and Principals.

6:00 P. M. Dinner, Little Paper Family, Dr. J. L. Smith, Minnesota School, Presiding.

8:00 P. M. *General Session.* Address, Mrs. Blanche L. LaDu, chairman, State Board of Control.

Thursday, June 20

9-11 A. M. Exhibits and Demonstrations, East Wing, Noyes Hall.

9-11 A. M. Demonstration of Class Work, West Wing, Noyes Hall.

11-12 A. M. *General Session,* Lecture, Dr. Frank H.

Reiter, Department of Public Instruction, Pennsylvania.

2:00 P. M. *Section Meetings.*

1. Oral—"Day-Schools in Wisconsin," Miss Lavilla A. Ward, Department of Public Instruction, Wisconsin.
2. Auricular—Miss Margaret S. Kent, Maryland School.

Business Meeting, American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf.

8:00 P. M. Entertainment, Peony Show and Pageant, Shattuck Campus.

Friday, June 21

9-11 A. M. Exhibits and Demonstrations, East Wing, Noyes Hall.

9-11 A. M. Demonstration of Class Work, East Wing, Noyes Hall.

11-12 A. M. *General Session.* Lecture, Dr. Race, University of Wisconsin.

2:00 P. M. *Normal Section.*

1. Historical Sketch, Dr. J. L. Smith, Minnesota School.
2. Gallaudet College, Dr. Percival Hall.
3. National Research Council, H. E. Day, Superintendent, Missouri School.

8:00 P. M. Business Meeting.

The headquarters of the Convention and the registration office will be in Tate Hall. Ladies' quarters will be in Tate Hall, men's quarters in Barron Hall. All meetings, school exhibits, class demonstrations, etc., will be in Noyes Hall, the school building.

Accommodations must be reserved in advance, before June 1. There are accommodations at the school for three hundred members at the following rates:

Room in dormitories, near bath, including meals, $3.00 per day for each person.

Single room, near bath, including meals, $3.50 per day for each person.

Double room with private bath, including meals, $4.00 per day for each person.

Double room with bath and private sitting room, including meals, $5.00 per day for each person.

The Harvey Hotel, six blocks from the school, quotes the following rates:

Room without bath, $1.50 per day.

Room with bath, $2.50 to $3.50 per day.

Meals, European plan.

SPECIAL MEETING OF THE CONFERENCE

To the Members of the Conference of Superintendents and Principals of American Schools for the Deaf:

A special meeting of the Conference is hereby called for Wednesday, June 19, 1929, 2 P. M., at the Minnesota School for the Deaf, at Faribault, for the purpose of considering reports of committees appointed at the last regular meeting at Knoxville.

The Executive Committee,
PERCIVAL HALL, *Chairman,*
FRANK M. DRIGGS,
H. M. MCMANAWAY,
THOMAS S. MCALONEY,
W. LAURENS WALKER,
FRANK W. BOOTH.

STRAIGHT LANGUAGE
By EDITH FITZGERALD
Of interest to teachers and mothers of deaf children.
Price, $3.15, postpaid.
THE McCLURE CO., INC., STAUNTON, VA.

Barry's Five-Slate System
Price $2.50 Net
Order From
SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF
Colorado Springs ***Colorado***

"FIRST LESSONS IN ENGLISH"

A course of systematic instruction in language, in five volumes, by CAROLINE SWEET. Single copy, 50c.

All five books now on sale.

A Preparatory Book, which will save teachers of preparatory and first-year classes the task of hektographing year books, written by EDITH M. RICHARDS, is also on sale. Price, 50c.

"STORY READER No. 1"

Sixty short stories prepared for young pupils, compiled by IDA V. HAMMOND. Price, $3.84 per dozen. Single copy, 50c.

"STORY READER No. 2"

Short stories prepared for young pupils, compiled by IDA V. HAMMOND. Price, $4.20 per dozen. Single copy, 40c.

"STORIES FOR LANGUAGE STUDY"

Short stories for pupils in their third or fourth year at school, prepared by JANE B. KELLOGG. Price, 50c.

"TALKS AND STORIES"

Contains nearly a hundred short stories and seventy-five conversations for practice in language, prepared by WILLIAM G. JENKINS, M.A. Price, $8.00 per dozen. Single copy, 70c.

"WORDS AND PHRASES"

Examples of correct English usage, by WILLIAM G. JENKINS, M.A. Price, $6.00 per dozen. Single copy, 60c.

"BITS OF HISTORY"

One hundred stories gathered from United States History, compiled by JOHN E. CRANE, B.A. Single copy, 75c.

"WRITTEN EXERCISES ON DIRECT AND INDIRECT QUOTATIONS"

By J. EVELYN WILLOUGHBY, Instructor in the Clarke School. Single copy, 50c.

"THE STORY OF AMERICA FOR LITTLE AMERICANS"

By GRACE M. BEATTIE, Instructor in the Colorado School. New Edition. Price, single copy, $1.00.

"AN AID TO DICTIONARY STUDY IN GRAMMAR GRADES"

By CATHERINE DUNN and MARY F. GILKINSON, Teachers in the Indianapolis Public Schools, assisted by AMELIA DEMOTTE, Teacher in the Illinois State School for the Deaf. Price, 40c.

PUBLISHED BY THE

AMERICAN SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF, WEST HARTFORD, CONN.

THE WRIGHT ORAL SCHOOL

1 Mount Morris Park West, New York City
(Now known as 1 Nathan Davis Place)
ESTABLISHED IN 1894

Fully equipped to educate a deaf child by the speech method from Kindergarten to College entrance. No use of finger spelling or the sign language is permitted.

LARGE ENOUGH TO BE A REAL SCHOOL
SMALL ENOUGH TO BE A REAL HOME

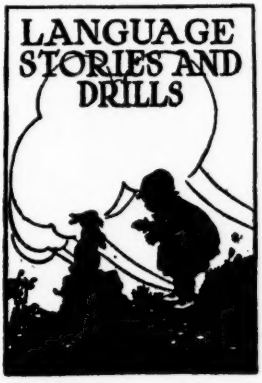
1 Mount Morris Park West is the home of the girls
2 Mount Morris Park West is the school building
3 Mount Morris Park West is the home of the boys

CORRESPONDENCE COURSE FOR MOTHERS
OF LITTLE DEAF CHILDREN

which has been prepared and copyrighted by the Founder and Advisor, JOHN DUTTON WRIGHT, and by which parents are enabled to save for their children the priceless years before school age is reached, and begin at home their training in lip-reading, speech, and auricular development.

THE SCHOOL HAS JUST PUBLISHED TWO BOOKS
BY JOHN DUTTON WRIGHT

"The Little Deaf Child," a book for parents. $1.00 postpaid, and "A Handbook of Practical Auricular Training." 50c, postpaid. A third book by Mr. Wright is coming through the press for which advance orders are being taken. "A Handbook of Practical Speech Teaching." $1.25, postpaid.



"Language Stories and Drills"
Books, I, II, III and IV
Gertrude W. Croker, Mabel K. Jones and M. Evelyn Pratt

Illustrated by Tony Sarg

Price per copy, $1.25
Teachers' Manuals, $.50. Postage not included

Send orders to

CROKER, JONES & PRATT
Public School 47, 225 East 23rd St.
New York City

BOOKS FOR THE DEAF

By MARGARET J. STEVENSON

THE LIFE OF JESUS (Revised)
For Primary Classes. Cloth; Price, 30 cents net.

PRIMARY GEOGRAPHY, NUMBER I (Revised)
Cloth; Price, $1.00 net.

PRIMARY GEOGRAPHY, NUMBER II
Cloth; Price, $1.00 net.

NATURE FACTS (Revised)
Used correlatively with Primary Geographies.
Cloth; Price, 80 cents net.

SEND ALL ORDERS DIRECT TO
MARGARET J. STEVENSON, OLATHE, KANSAS

BOOKS FOR THE DEAF

By LOUISE UPHAM

Principal of Cresheim Hall, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia

THE BEGINNER'S BOOK
Cloth; Price, $1.00.

THE QUESTION BOOK
For Second-Year Classes. Cloth; Price, $1.00.

LANGUAGE DRILL STORIES
For Third-Year Classes. Prices, $1.00.

WHAT PEOPLE DO
Short Lessons on the Trades and Occupations. Price, $1.00.

The above books are attractively illustrated in color.

SEND ORDERS DIRECT TO THE AUTHOR
CRESHEIM HALL, MT. AIRY, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

SCHOOL BOOKS FOR THE DEAF

GRACE M. BEATTIE
Instructor in the School for the Deaf, Colorado Springs, Colo.

FIRST LESSONS IN GEOGRAPHY
Fully illustrated; $1.00 per copy
REVISED EDITION, 1927
Published by the
Ohio State School for the Deaf
Columbus, Ohio

THE STORY OF
AMERICA FOR LITTLE AMERICANS
Fully illustrated; $1.00 per copy
New Edition

PUBLISHED BY THE
AMERICAN SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF, WEST HARTFORD, CONN.

Central Institute for the Deaf

NATIONAL RESIDENTIAL AND DAY SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF AND DEFECTIVES IN SPEECH

Approved by Advisory Council of Foremost Ear Specialists and Educators

Beautiful Newly Completed $400,000 Building Contains the Latest and Most Progressive Equipment for Scientific Research of Deafness and Problems of Speech Education.

ORAL SCHOOL FOR DEAF CHILDREN

C. I. D. offers all advantages of exclusively Oral Training and constant expert medical supervision to both Resident and Day Pupils.
Education and Training from Kindergarten (3 years of age) to College.

CLASSES FOR HARD-OF-HEARING CHILDREN

A new department has been established for the special training of Hard-of-Hearing children in Lip-Reading and Speech; all grades.

LIP-READING INSTRUCTION FOR ADULTS

Private and Class Instruction for the adult deaf. Conversational Classes for advanced pupils.

CORRECTION OF SPEECH DEFECTS

Correction of Imperfect Phonation, Indistinct Articulation, Lisping, Stuttering, Stammering and Aphasias.

TEACHERS' TRAINING CLASSES

Over 600 teachers are either graduates of the regular Normal Classes or hold certificates of attendance in Summer Normal Classes of C. I. D.

All Classes for Pupils and Teachers Limited

Illustrated Booklet Sent on Request

DR. M. A. GOLDSTEIN, Director · · · MISS JULIA M. CONNERY, Principal

818 S. KINGSHIGHWAY, ST. LOUIS, MO.

CONTENTS

PROCEEDINGS OF THE FOURTEENTH CONFERENCE OF SUPERINTENDENTS AND PRINCIPALS OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF—I 95
Officers and Members 95
Some Present-Day Practices in Curriculum Construction *J. A. Thackston, Ph. D.* 97
President's Address ..... *E. McK. Goodwin, M. A.* 101
Deafness as a Social Problem—the Physical Side *Victor O. Skyberg, M. A.* 106
Deafness as a Social Problem—the Industrial Side *Frank M. Driggs, M. A.* 113
Discussion ..... *J. W. Blattner, M. A., and Others* 117
Industrial Organization and Training *Elbert A. Gruwer, LL. D.* 124
Curriculum Tendencies and Schools for the Deaf *Irving S. Fusfeld, M. A.* 128
The Senior High School Curriculum ..... *O. L. McIntire, M. A.* 134
Requirements and Courses at Gallaudet *Percival Hall, Litt. D.* 148
A Junior College ..... *John W. Jones, LL. D.* 154
Committees 156
Our Ultimate Aims ..... *Alvin E. Pope, M. A.* 156
Discussion ..... *Mrs. H. T. Poore, B. A., and Others* 160
Ethics in Our Profession ..... *Ignatius Bjorlee, M. A.* 166 *A. C. Manning, M. A.* 175
Recent Educational Advancements and Our Reactions to Them ..... *Howard M. McManaway, M. A.* 180
Discussion ..... *O. M. Pittenger, Ph. D.* 188
Residual Hearing and Its Bearing on Oral Training *T. C. Forrester, F E. I. S.* 193
Auricular Training and Oral Instruction *Leonard M. Elstad, M. A.* 199
Discussion ..... *J. Schuyler Long, Litt. D.* 204
The Work of the Division of Anthropology and Psychology of the National Research Council ..... *Knight Dunlap, Ph. D.* 205
ANNOUNCEMENT OF THE TWENTY-SIXTH MEETING OF THE CONVENTION OF AMERICAN INSTRUCTORS OF THE DEAF 213
SPECIAL MEETING OF THE CONFERENCE ..... *Executive Committee* 217

The AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF is published bi-monthly during the school year, appearing in the months of January, March, May, September, and November. The subscription is $2.00 a year, payable in advance; January number, one dollar a copy; single numbers otherwise, 50 cents. For Great Britain and Ireland the subscription price, postage included, is 8s 6d; for France and Italy 11 francs, all of which may be sent through the international money-order office.

Subscriptions made payable to the AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF may be sent to the Monumental Printing Company, 1918 Harford Avenue, Baltimore, Maryland, or to the Editor, Gallaudet College, Kendall Green, Washington, D. C.

MONUMENTAL PRINTING COMPANY, BALTIMORE, MD.